The Nation.

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The Week.

THE efforts of the Republican platform-makers at Saratoga to deal with national issues were like the stone-rolling of Sisyphus or like those of a man pumping in a dry well. They say in the first place that the Wilson tariff is "the first step accomplished in the campaign for the annihilation of American industries." Immediately afterwards they "welcome the dawn of returning prosperity following the Republican victory of 1894"; but they hasten to say that this prosperity is much exaggerated, and that the recent restoration of wages has been unduly magnified by the Democrats. After such a logical setting forth of the tariff situation we might reasonably expect a lucid statement of the Republican programme, but all that we find is a declaration that "with a complete return of the Republican party to power, and the enactment of such remedial legislation as the conditions plainly require, we confidently look for a renewal of the prosperity that marked the quarter century of its government of the country." The advantage of this is, that the kind of remedial legislation needed is left to the unbiassed judgment of each voter. The only thing reasonably sure is, that it does not mean the restoration of the McKinley tariff, because if that had been the intention it would have been expressed. In fact, McKinley's name was not once mentioned either in the platform or in the other proceedings, while those of Morton, Harrison, and Reed were greeted with great applause.

The platform touching the silver question is sufficiently explicit, and in this matter is an improvement on former deliverances by the party in New York. It is in fine contrast with the platform of four years ago, when the party endorsed the policy of purchasing the product of American silver mines and issuing Treasury notes therefor. The Democrats of New York denounced that policy as embodied in the Sherman act, and demanded that every dollar coined should have the intrinsic value of every other dollar. There is not the least doubt that this declaration of the Democrats was an important factor in the election of Gov. Flower in 1891. This year the Democrats will have no such advantage, whatever they may say in their platform. It would not have come amiss if the Republicans had said something about taking the Government out of the banking business. It is possible that the Democrats may supply this deficiency.

The organ of the Manufacturers' Club in Philadelphia sniffs at the nomination of Gov. Morton for the Presidency by the Republican convention of New York as "a pretty compliment," but not to be taken seriously. Why not seriously? Because, according to the organ, Mr. Morton is "a New York banker with British connections." This is such a complete disqualification in its view that the subject is not worth talking about; yet if a New York banker with British connections is wanted, it suggests the name of J. Pierpont Morgan as far preferable, because the latter controls the Treasury now as well as the gold market and the railroads of the country. And so the editor continues at considerable length biting files and crunching glassware in the interest of free coinage, which has lately claimed even more of his attention than the tariff. Without seeing very far into the Republican council chamber, we are pretty well convinced that the objections to Mr. Morton are not on the score of his being a banker or having British connections. Most bankers of wide repute have British connections, and find them advantageous to their business. If they are advantageous to the banker, they must be so to the country of which he forms a part. It is hard to imagine the case of a banker whose prosperity is a good thing for the country if he scorns foreign connections, but a bad thing if he has a partnership in London. Mr. Morton has to plead guilty to that offence in common with the late Mr. Drexel, the present Mr. Morgan, the Browns, the Seligmans, the Lazards, the Kidders, and scores of others.

The poll of the next Congress on the silver question, undertaken by a committee of the Chamber of Commerce, confirms in a gratifying way the general impression that the next House will be overwhelmingly against free coinage. It will contain but 88 outspoken silverites, while 216 members are ready to declare themselves as opposed to free silver, and but 52 refuse to commit themselves either way. Classified by party, the free-silver Representatives number 30 Republicans, 51 Democrats, and 7 Populists. This showing impressively marks the extent to which the silver tide has ebbed in the popular branch of Congress since the day, November 5, 1877, when Bland carried his free-coinage bill through the House by a vote of 164 to 34. As for the Senate, it was then more conservative than the House, but now has the undisputed palm for financial madness. How Senators will vote in the next Congress the Chamber of Commerce committee is not able to say positively, though it is estimated that, even in the stronghold of the mining camps, sound money will have a majority. But this does not much matter. With at least seventy-five majority against free silver in the House, the heathen may rage in the Senate to their hearts' content, and the country will but have them in derision. It was, of course, known that no free-silver bill could become law as long as President Cleveland remained alive and in office; it is now known that no such bill will ever be sent to him to veto.

We are glad to see that a call for a national silver convention is to be issued in December, so that a silver ticket may be first in the field for the next Presidential election. The silver leaders show more than their customary shrewdness in admitting that they will be unable to capture the convention or platform of either Republicans or Democrats. Hence, to precipitate a break-up of the old parties, they propose to be "early in the field." This will, they think, "impress the country with their verve," and cause thousands, who are disgusted with the lack of silver verve in the old parties, to hasten to join what is to be "the most radical party going." They are quite right. With so long and hard a race as they have to run they cannot make too early a start. Their candidate for the Presidency will look well in the field all by himself, and can seem to be carrying the country unanimously until the time comes to put up the other candidates. For that season he can run well and have a great deal of glory all to himself. In fact, carrying elections and holding conventions in advance of all others seems to be the chief function of the silver agitators at present. The Illinois convention was the earliest on record, but it is now utterly forgotten, and the men who took part in it are ashamed of themselves. So much for being "early in the field."

The Rochester banks which last week turned over $250,000 in gold to the Treasury, accompanied their act with a statement in which they pat themselves on the back for "assisting" the Government. This is a mixing up of patriotism and business in a way that is bad for both. Who is the "Government" that is to be "assisted"? Why, so far as the present currency difficulties are concerned, the Government is the sovereign lawmaking power of this country — the Congress which, last winter, hooted down every law designed to put the Government beyond the need of assistance, and which, in the matter of the bond issue alone, voted with a whoop to throw away $16,000,000 of interest. Is there any virtue, any safety, in "assisting" such reckless spendthrifts? Organized charity has taught us the danger of pauperizing the poor. It is time that the danger of pauperizing the Government were beaten into the general head, especially into the heads of bankers. If the blunders and

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brutalities of the last Congress in currency legislation are to be condoned, and made up for by charitable contributions, what right have we to expect anything better from the next? We must deal with a mendicant government—in the sense of shameless and mendicant lawmakers—just as we would with an old charitable-society "rounder." Before it is given "assistance," it must agree to take a bath, to quit beer and 'baccy, to live economically, and to turn its hand to any honest way of increasing its own income. If the Rochester banks really wanted legal-tenders instead of gold, as we presume they did, let them say so and stop with that. As for assisting the Government, the best way they can do that is to look out strictly for their own interests, and to insist, with the rest of their fellow-voters and fellow-taxpayers, that the Government shall do what it can to help itself before passing round the hat.

The banks should remember how easy it is for governments to come to look upon "assistance" of this kind as a vested right. It is just as it is with tramps that have been regularly fed at a certain area window: if they are ever refused, they grow ugly and threaten to stick a knife into somebody or to set fire to the house. Great accumulations of money have always been a terrible temptation to governments. They ache to get their hands on them. Why should they be saving, or lay taxes to cover their extravagance, when there is all this wealth to be frightened into coming to their rescue? This has been the huge mischief of government banking and government alliances with banks all the way down. The Government has often practically said to the bankers: "We have exercised great forbearance in letting you accumulate so much money, and now, if you do not want us to take it all, give us a part." Under a free-banking law, such fears and such favors are entirely uncalled for. If the banks vary a hair's breadth from the line of strict business in their dealings with the Government, they simply invite, first appeals for help, then threats, then hostile legislation. The next six months, in particular, will be a most important period for keeping banking and patriotism severely separate. The only way to make Congress work out its own salvation with fear and trembling is to let it see, beyond a peradventure, that the charity "lay" is no longer possible, and that it must either work or starve.

Mr. Charles C. Jackson writes to the Boston *Herald* in favor of an increase of the Government's gold reserve to $200,000,000 as a means of safe-guarding the business interests of the country, and the *Herald* endorses and advocates that policy. The argument in favor of it is that, after the shocks which trade and industry have sustained during the past two years, there can be no real stability or permanent recuperation while the gold reserve is hovering around the $100,000,000 mark, being sometimes a little above and sometimes a good deal below that mark. It is contended that if the reserve were doubled, the distrust would cease. This does not necessarily follow, but a more important question is whether it is desirable that the distrust should cease while the fiat-money system continues. The Government's legal-tender notes are a perpetual menace to business interests, whether the gold reserve be more or less. Even a $200,000,000 reserve would have been ineffectual eighteen months ago. In fact, the Government owned very nearly $200,000,000 gold in 1890 and 1891. This shows that the size of the pile is not the main consideration; but of course a large one is better than a small one to ward off panics. The main consideration, in our judgment, is to get rid of fiat money altogether, and thus relieve the Government once for all of the necessity of finding gold to redeem its legal-tender notes with. Until this is done, there will be no real security or stability, no healthy basis of trade and industry.

Mr. David Lubin of California, with his scheme for a bounty on agricultural exports, continues to be the *enfant terrible* of the protectionist happy family. At first the elders patted him on the head benevolently, and complimented him on his precocity and promise. The Protective Tariff League was, we understand, for a time particularly gracious to him. He was a youth to be encouraged and aided. But this was before the sages of protection had read his arguments. When they did read them, it was only by the narrowest squeak that they escaped apoplexy. The fellow was actually contending that the farmer was entitled to a bounty on account of the "artificial enhancement caused by protection"! With a glib facility in handling figures which McKinley might envy, Lubin gives as a "conservative estimate" of the cost of the protective system the "grand total" of $1,035,000,000. That ended it. The *American Economist* was no longer "at home" to Lubin, and the *Home-Market Bulletin* eyed him thenceforth with a stony glare. Even the thinking editor of the *Press* (one-cent protection) began to refer contemptuously to the curious fellow from the "wild and woolly West." On this subject, we are informed, Mr. Lubin has his own opinions. He has seen the wild and woolly West in its own lairs, and he is prepared to maintain that there is more wildness and woolliness in the *Press* office than in any equal area on this hemisphere.

The better-class Republicans of New Jersey won a noteworthy victory at Trenton on Thursday, and one that will make for good government, whatever may be the verdict of the people at the polls. There would have been no doubt of Mr. Griggs's nomination for many weeks if there had been no doubt that the wishes of the people would be allowed free expression in the convention. He had been accepted as the natural leader in a campaign in which State abuses were to be the main issue, and in which the candidate for Governor ought to be a man thoroughly conversant with State affairs, free from all entanglements with State-house rings and ringmen, and possessed of the kind of courage which a political office so severely tests. Knowing that the party boss in the State had another choice, the smaller politicians assumed that Griggs's nomination was an impossibility, and they did not change their opinion until the choice of the convention was announced. There was less open pressure to defeat the popular will than usual, but the successful expression of that will encourage the belief that the end has indeed come to such bargainings and pilferings as have made the government at Trenton so long a disgrace. The platform is wisely devoted almost entirely to State issues, and the campaign will be very literally a State campaign. Here again the convention showed its good sense. Printing jobs and corrupt State-house contracts cannot be checked and punished by appeals for woollen duties.

The proposal by Dr. Parkhurst of an attempt to secure a better understanding between the cities and the rural districts of this State suggests an inquiry as to how the population of the commonwealth is divided between them. The State census taken in 1892 showed 6,513,343 inhabitants, of whom 1,801,739 were in New York city, while Kings County, all of which is now within the limits of Brooklyn, had 995,276, Buffalo 278,727, Rochester 144,834, Albany 97,120, and Syracuse 91,944. Nearly 28 per cent. of all the people were thus found in the metropolis, and the addition of the city at the other end of the bridge made 43 per cent. of the whole population within a comparatively few square miles on each side of the East River out of a total area of 49,170 square miles. Join with New York and Brooklyn the cities of Buffalo, Rochester, and either Albany or Syracuse, and more than half of the people were settled within five municipalities. With the steady growth of the cities at the expense of the country, there is no doubt that already the four largest places in the State have above 50 per cent. of the population, and it is not unreasonable to expect that, before the twentieth century is far advanced, half of the State's inhabitants will reside in the one great city that will include the two counties of New York and Kings.

The differences in the character, education, and habits of the people found in

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the large cities and those in the rural districts are as marked as the contrast in the number of inhabitants. In New York males of voting age who were born abroad exceeded in 1890 natives of the United States as 269,069 to 177,729, and a good percentage of the latter, though born here, had foreign parents and have been brought up in foreign ways. Foreign-born male adults exceed the natives by a few hundred in Brooklyn, and by more than 3,500 in Buffalo, while in Rochester four out of every nine were born abroad. On the other hand, there are rural counties where a foreigner is still a good deal of a rarity. For example, Greene County, comprising the Catskills, has sixteen natives to every foreigner; Warren, in the lower Adirondacks, ten to one; and many others, six or eight to one. Of course, the people of such rural counties cannot have the faintest conception of the conditions that exist in a great city where a large majority of the voters were born abroad, and instruction such as Dr. Parkhurst proposes must be of the greatest value.

A new phase of that "American Sunday" which the Republican League clubs favored is brought to light by a controversy in the State of Washington. The town of Pullman has a "Sunday-closing" question that is altogether different from what is usually understood by that term. It appears that it has been the custom in Washington during the harvest season, when the farmers are unusually busy and cannot well afford to stop work on a week day for a trip to town, to postpone the journey until Sunday, on which day the regular purchase of meat, groceries, and machine supplies is made. The practice has been in violation of the law, but the authorities have not interfered. Recently, however, the City Marshal of Pullman notified all the business houses of the place that hereafter their doors must remain closed on the first day of the week. But there is the same discrimination in the enforcement of the Sunday law in Washington as in New York. As in this State the excise law is applied rigorously in New York city, but allowed to be violated by the authorities across the bridge in Brooklyn and by the government of every other large city, so in the Northwestern commonwealth the stores in Pullman are kept closed, but the authorities in other towns in the neighborhood permit trading to go on as usual. The incident is of interest as showing how wide are the variations in the matter of Sunday observance in different parts of the United States, such a thing as the opening of stores in the towns on Sunday for the benefit of the farmers during the busy season being altogether unknown in this part of the country.

Amid the deepening gloom which enshrouds Hawaiian annexation, what with the cholera and the sudden coolness of Republican platforms, one bright ray comes to cheer the islanders. Mr. Judson N. Cross, "one of the ablest lawyers of the Northwest," has written a letter to President Dole explaining how easy it would be for the Hawaiians to "annex themselves." All that they would have to do would be to "organize a State and run up the old flag," and then send delegates who "shall demand admission to the American Congress." Able Lawyer Cross puts the searching question why, if Congress can announce to the world that an act unfriendly to Hawaii will be considered an act unfriendly to the United States, the Hawaiian Congress has not "the correlative right to proclaim itself to all people and governments to be a part of the Great Republic." He forcibly argues that this would simply "round out the Monroe doctrine to its logical conclusion," and urges the Hawaiian Government to be the first to exercise the inalienable right of all American countries "to annex themselves." How Lodge and the other Monroe doctors would meet this we cannot guess; to us it seems an irrefragable inference from their own principles. Anyhow, the idea is received with much favor in Honolulu, and is discussed by eminent Hawaiian jurists with great gravity. One of them admits that it is not the "regular way," but that the proposition may lead to "important results." For our part, we hope to see the two Hawaiian Senators and one Representative promptly on hand at the opening of Congress. No Republican committee on credentials could reject men coming in the name of the Monroe doctrine, America for Americans, the key of the Pacific, the cause of missions, a sugar bounty, and a concession for a cable.

The criticism of the management of the ocean steamers which is now in the air should not cease without some comment on the reluctance or inability of captains to check rowdyism. The Fourth of July is a favorite day for the American rowdy to make himself a nuisance to men of other nations, and he too often avails himself of his privileges by getting drunk, howling in the night time, and making things what he calls "lively." A spree of this kind occurred on one line on the last Fourth, which was marked by great drunkenness and disorder, and the fun consisted to some extent in throwing the passengers' chairs overboard, which was done for some time without interference. An appeal to the captain met with no response, and it was only a threat of legal proceedings which compelled the culprits to apologize and pay damages in the morning. Things do not always go as far as this, but the Fourth of July has on the ocean steamers ceased to be very welcome to foreigners or very creditable to Americans. The fact is, that as the steamers have grown in size, and the multitude of the passengers has increased, the ship's officers have grown more and more reluctant to exercise any police powers, and have retired more and more into the seclusion of navigation. This is doubtless a reaction from the old régime, when captains used to flirt with the ladies, gamble with the men, and read prayers on Sunday, and there is good in it; but it has gone too far.

Emperor William's violent railing at the German Social Democrats on Sedan day seems to have done them a good turn, and in the nick of time. They were just then incurring great unpopularity on account of the resolutions passed by some of their committees against the national celebrations of the war of 1870, on the ground of the "solidarity" of the interests of the people in France and Germany. But fiery Wilhelm's denunciation of them as unworthy to bear the name of Germans, and his practically calling upon the Guards to enter upon a war of extermination against them, at once caused a reaction. People reflected that the Social Democrats, when all was said, polled a vote larger than that of any other German party. They reflected, too, it is probable, that a good part of that large vote was due to the growing disgust of the German nation with the antics of their war-lord, and that it was a grave question in many minds whether it was not more important to put a straight-jacket on him than to go to shooting the Socialists. At any rate, Wilhelm seems to have rushed in most opportunely for the Social Democrats, and to have done all in his power to rescue them from an awkward situation.

The Glasgow experiment in the municipalization of street railways has been watched with great interest, and its complete financial success confidently announced. From the working accounts submitted for the eleven months ending May 31, 1895, such an announcement would appear to be justified. The tramway committee of the corporation of Glasgow report that they are able to turn over to "the common good" profits amounting to $41,000. But along came an expert accountant a month ago, who had had exceptional experience in analyzing tramway accounts, and showed, in the London *Times*, that the apparent profit was really a deficit. From the very figures published by the corporation he asserted, and appeared to prove, that there had been "a net loss of not less than $100,000." The trouble was the old one of not writing off enough for working expenses or depreciation. Thus the actual loss on live-stock was $10,000 more than allowed for in the accounts, working expenses of $65,000 were not charged at all against the revenue, etc. The Glasgow men have not thus far made any reply to this damaging analysis, though one would seem to be urgently demanded.

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THE CONSULAR REFORM.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND has partially atoned for the "Quincy debauch" by the order which he has just issued subjecting applicants for consulships or commercial agencies, the income from which is not more than $2,500 nor less than $1,000, to examination as to fitness. That is to say, all such vacancies are to be hereafter filled either

"by a transfer or promotion from some other place under the Department of State of a character tending to qualify the incumbent for the place to be filled; or (b) by appointment of a person not under the Department of State, but having previously served thereunder to its satisfaction in a capacity tending to qualify him for the place to be filled; or (c) by the appointment of a person who, having furnished the customary evidence of character, responsibility, and capacity, and being thereupon selected by the President for examination, is found upon such examination to be qualified for the place."

The peculiarity of this order is, that it takes the matter out of the hands of Congress altogether as to about one-half the consular service, and proposes to deal with it by executive authority solely. It must be examined in the light of the history of the attempts to purify the consular service as reported by Secretary Olney. In 1864 Congress provided for thirteen consular clerks, who were supposed to be persons in training for the consular service; but if they ever came into existence, nothing has since been heard about them by the public. In 1866 the Department of State issued an order requiring all applicants for consulships to present themselves for examination at the department; but if this order is still in force, Mr. Josiah Quincy never heard of it, and at all events only one examination was held under it. In 1872 another order of the same kind was issued, but what effect it had appears to be unknown to everybody. Another order in the same year put the consulates under the civil-service act of 1871, and made candidates examinable by a board composed of three persons serving in the State Department. This system lasted two years, but perished owing to the refusal of Congress to make any appropriation for the execution of the law. The present order is issued again under the act, and it is to be hoped that it will have a better fate than its predecessors.

It is to be observed about it, therefore, that it will owe its force and permanence, like its predecessors, to executive discretion. If appointments should again be made from persons outside the three categories prescribed by President Cleveland, or if the Missouri colonels and Arkansas editors should find the examinations at the State Department a mere form, there will be no remedy, any more than there was for the Quincy debauch. But we think the chances that this reform will be genuine and will last are now better than they ever were before. In the first place, the need of fitness for subordinate offices has taken hold of the public mind as never before, and the merit system has now been working successfully for some years in most branches of domestic administration. In the next place, the Quincy debauch called more attention than anything of the kind had ever done before to the condition of the consular service under the spoils system; and, though last not least, the steady growth of our foreign commerce, and the increasing desire to compete in foreign markets, is more and more impressing people with the need of competent consular agents.

There has been growing of late in Europe a strong belief in the childishness of the American people, fostered in part by the mode in which our journalistic youths discuss public questions in the newspapers, in part by the ravings of some of our crazy men about the currency. It is helped even by the talk of some good men, for there is something very juvenile about the applause heaped on the "patriotism" of people who lend gold to the Government, and about the demand that, instead of going to Europe, we should all stay at home to help the Treasury to keep the currency at par. All this savors a little of the well-conducted kindergarten, and startles foreign investors. They do not like to lend money to people who appear to be so immature.

But nothing probably has done more to damage our national business character than our foreign consuls. That any people rich enough and civilized enough to have consuls at all, or to feel the need of them, should have *such* consuls as ours, puzzles foreigners extremely, and the only explanation which Americans have to offer—the condition of our home politics—is too long and tedious to have any value. A practical people, as we love to consider ourselves, would, they say, pay the salaries to these men in some capacity at home, and not make a display of their weakness or incompetency to strangers, whose good opinion they are apparently sent abroad to cultivate. As a general rule, even the wildest democrats in Europe and the most eager spoilsmen try to present a good front to the foreigners, by allowing only fit men to represent the nation, but we have had in this point what may be called a droll shamelessness. The way we manage to dismiss from our minds, after we have got the colonel or editor off our hands, the kind of figure he will cut as a consul in a foreign city, is one of our oddest peculiarities.

It is to be observed, however, that when Americans arrive on the ground, visit him in his office, contrast him with the commercial agents of other countries, and find where he stands socially in foreign capitals, the absurdity of our consular system does come home to them. An increasing number of Americans have this experience every year. When our system is seen on the spot under hostile eyes, and before sneering critics of our character and manners, its weaknesses become more glaring and the desire to get rid of it stronger. This is one of the great uses of European travel. It gives many thousands every summer a new point of view. From thinking of consulships as a means of travel for a consumptive friend, or a refuge for a drunken brother, or a holiday for a "live" party worker, they come to look on them as agencies for the promotion of American commerce, for the glorification of democratic institutions, and for the stimulation of rational national pride.

THE RIGHT OF PERSECUTION.

JUDGE HOLMES of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts delivered an opinion last June in a boycotting case which excited a good deal of sensation at the time. He laid it down that although "deliberate and combined interference with a man's business by persuading others to have nothing to do with him" was actionable, yet this applied only to malicious interference, or interference for pure mischief or harm's sake. Such interference, if made for "a good purpose," such as to compel an employer to accept the strikers' schedule of wages by using "persuasion, advice, and social pressure" to prevent other men taking their places, would, he held, be justifiable, although "the weight of judicial opinion was the other way."

A case has recently occurred in England, before the Queen's Bench Division, in which the whole matter was thoroughly argued, and the plaintiff obtained an injunction restraining the defendants from doing the things which Judge Holmes said they might lawfully do if their motives were good. The defendants were the managers of a trade-union of plasterers, and they had a difference with a master plasterer named Peek, and withdrew their men from his employ. As he was engaged on a contract, another master plasterer named Wright lent him some men. The union then attacked Wright by endeavoring to get his men to leave him, and to induce people to break their contracts with him, and by printing and circulating libels about him. They did procure the breach of certain contracts with him, and did prevent his getting employment. He sued for libel, and asked for an injunction. The defence set up was substantially Judge Holmes's—that there was no malice, that the union's motives were good, and that they acted from a sense of duty.

The Judge, Baron Pollock, laid it down that

"No man had a right to do that which injured another man unless by acts he had a legal right to do. In this country every one had a right to express his opinion clearly with reference to the questions of the day. But if an individual, in order to enforce his particular views, did an act knowingly and intending to inflict an injury upon another, the law did not allow that to be done. Nor could a man say, 'If you don't employ a certain class of people, we shall do certain things which will injure you in your business.'

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The question was, Did the defendant say to himself, 'I will go to these people and will write such letters as will prevent them from employing Mr. Wright, and then he will be obliged to come to our terms and not to exercise any free will of his own'?"

He then left the following questions to the jury:

"(1.) Do you think that the course of conduct pursued by the defendant with regard to the employment of the plaintiff Wright was improper in the sense of being malicious—*i. e.*, with the intention of injuring him? (2.) Do you think that the letters which were written were written with an improper motive to injure the plaintiff, or were written bona-fide and with the honest intention of discharging a duty?"

The jury found that there was malice, and gave $2,500 for the libels and $1,500 for the damages caused by the breaches of contract which the defendants had brought about, and the court granted an injunction restraining the defendants in all their operations against Wright.

The reason of all this is obvious enough. Civil society could not go on if any voluntary combination of persons were armed with the power of keeping anybody they chose to disapprove of from following a lawful calling in his own way, or preventing his forming or sustaining the relations with others by which he gained his livelihood. The excuse, too, which Judge Holmes supplies, that they meant well, has been used to justify every form of organized tyranny and oppression by which man has vexed his fellow-man. The Inquisition burnt and tortured with the best of motives, and the very worst governments the world has seen have professed high aims in harassing people. It is only bands of brigands who acknowledge that they are operating for pure mischief.

The claims put forward both by the Massachusetts strikers and by the English plasterers are fresh illustrations of the tendency of the modern labor movements, particularly when they take a socialist form, towards some sort of slavery. Their main business is, in fact, coercing people, putting some kind of restraint on their liberty, and compelling the individual to substitute somebody else's will for his own in regulating his life. One day they are engaged in subjugating the laborer, the next in subjugating the employer, but every day in pursuing somebody with penalties and threats; and all in virtue of an authority drawn solely from force.

The hostility to employers to which most of this is due, and which is exerting a disastrous effect on the business of more than one country, owes its origin to the doctrine which Marx has done most to spread, but which fills hundreds of thousands of heads that have never heard of Marx, viz., that things get their value from the labor spent on them, and that they therefore rightly belong to the man who has made them. Innocent and plausible as this idea seems, it has proved in its practical influence on the working-classes of Europe and this country almost a doctrine of devils. Bishop Potter made an effort last spring, by some timely remarks on the part which markets play in production, to arrest its ravages among the clergy. For the bitter truth is that value comes, not from labor, but from demand; that the laborer labors in vain unless he can find some one to buy his handiwork. The most valuable man in industry, the man to be cherished and encouraged and protected, is, therefore, the man who finds out what people will purchase, and finds the purchasers—or, in other words, the capitalist or employer, whose daily care it is to produce, not the good thing, but the thing for which he can get cash or bills. And yet this is the man whom the clergy, the philanthropists, the legislators, and sometimes the judges seem bent on persecuting and harassing and hunting out of one country into another. No more ingenious device for his annoyance and destruction could have been concocted than the doctrine that any men he once employs he must keep in his service on their own terms as long as they choose to stay, whatever may be his opinion of their worth or their influence on the market value of his commodities; and that, should he show any dissatisfaction with this arrangement, they would be justified in reducing him to submission by any means short of assault and battery, or physical injury to property.

COLLEGE ENGLISH.

THE visiting committee on Composition and Rhetoric of Harvard College, whose report made such commotion three years ago among the teachers of the preparatory schools, have reported again, and have fortified their rather lugubrious conclusions by copious extracts from the college entrance examination papers. They drew attention in the former report to the well-known fact that translations from the Greek and Latin into "free, original, and idiomatic" English have long been relied on by the schools as a test of the student's command of his mother tongue. They printed a considerable number of these translations from the examination papers, most of which showed that the translations were really not English, but a close approach to gibberish, and were, of course, neither free, nor original, nor idiomatic.

Since then things have apparently not improved. In 1893, Prof. Goodwin of Harvard, commenting on the committee's report, in the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine*, said:

"Many good people who read the committee's report will believe that our mother tongue is singled out for neglect and contempt by the preparatory schools; and some will think that the neglect of English is justified by the high standard of scholarship in Latin, Greek, and mathematics which (as they suppose) the college exacts of its candidates for admission. Nothing can be farther from the truth than both of these ideas. . . . A similar test applied to any other department would disclose a state of things in the lower ranks of scholarship which would be proportionally disreputable. . . . It cannot be doubted that a similar depth of ignorance of geometry, algebra, physics, or history might easily be disclosed."

With the view of ascertaining by actual observation what advances, if any, have been made in the three years, the committee have taken up, at random, some of the examination papers in advanced Latin of the year 1894, and print sixteen extracts from the translations. If we called them a low order of comic literature, we should not greatly exaggerate. Here is a bit of prose which is neither better nor worse than the others:

"And this Macedonia even when neighboring nations were conquering and barbarians hemming in, peaceful itself by its own efforts, and quiet, we watched over with a slender guard and small army even without a chief command, but by legates, by the very name of the Roman people; but she now is so harassed by the consular power and army, that she hardly can recuperate herself during a long peace. Nay who has not heard this, who does not know that the Guelph used annually to pay a great fortune to L. Piso, that the whole tribute and customs of the Dyrrachines were turned over to the supervision of this one man, that the city of the Byzantines most faithful to you and this empire has been harrassed after the fashion of an enemy, how he when he could screw nothing out of the poverty-stricken could tear away nothing by any violence from the wretched sent his cohorts into winter-quarters; he placed over them men whom he thought would be most diligent satelites of his crimes, ministers of his cupidity."

And here is a bit of poetry of equal merit:

"Behold however the bull smoking under the hard ploughshare fell and threw out from his mouth blood mixed with froth and stifled his last groans. The sodden yeoman departs unyoking the bullock sorrowing at his brother's death, and leaves his implements fixed in the midst of his work. Nor the shades of the lowering groves, nor the soft fields can move his mind nor the which flying over the rocks seeks the field by the streamlet (but his sides are shaken with sobs [but the depths of his sides are loosended]) and stupor presses upon his fixed eyes, and his neck by the bending weight looks toward the earth."

The ignorance of Latin and ignorance of English are here displayed in about equal proportions. In fact, no improvement is visible in these pages. Apropos of this state of things, Prof. Goodwin says:

"There is no conceivable justification for using the revenues of Harvard College, or the time and strength of her instructors, in the vain attempt to enlighten the Egyptian darkness in which no small portion of our undergraduates are sitting. The college must do something to redeem herself from disgrace, and to put the disgrace where it belongs; but she must no longer spend time, strength, and money on the hopeless task which she has recently undertaken."

The committee has not hitherto singled out any particular school as responsible for these renderings, but the report intimates that the committee will in their next publish the examination papers of candidates for admission to Harvard College coming from one or two schools of the first rank.

Prof. Goodwin's remarks touch on one of the gravest sides of this matter, when he alludes to the enormous waste in America of college funds and professorial talent in attempts to teach youths who are totally unprepared to profit by collegiate instruction. This unfitness may be equal-

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ly great in other branches than English, but its most striking, most lamentable, and most readily appreciated display is in the English department. That so many of the youths of the country to whom the art of expression ought to come easiest should, at the age of eighteen or nineteen, find their mother tongue completely unmanageable when they pass outside the phraseology of every-day life, must be considered little short of a national calamity. The schools have, it is true, some little excuse in the general popular carelessness of speech even in families of some cultivation, but this does not cover the general indifference of parents to the English of teachers and the teachers' indifference to their own English. We believe the cases are rare where a teacher's English speech helps or hinders him or her in getting employment. One may go into half the schools of this city and find children taught by twangy, slangy, slipshod speakers. The whole subject of English speech and writing in the schools is attracting more and more attention. The present instruction is most discreditable, but nowhere so discreditable as in the schools which prepare for college. We are the one civilized country to-day where a man's speech does not indicate what his opportunities of training have been and what kind of social place he fills.

THE BURDENS OF THE WEALTHY.

THE heavy weight of taxation borne by the French people is at last directing general attention to the details not only of public but of private expenditure. As to the expenditure of the Government, it has notoriously increased at a startling rate, and it is not surprising to find that, as in the case of our own democracy, pensions are responsible for much of the increase. It used to be said that privileges and pensions were aristocratic abuses, but experience has shown the fallacy of this contention. On the contrary, it seems that the great danger of democracy is from the multiplication of offices and the grant of pensions, bounties, and other gratuities. An industrious investigator has recently been at the pains to look into the particulars of the French system of pensioning civil officers, and he shows that under the republic the amounts paid have advanced at an alarming pace. Between 1876 and 1895 the number of office-holders under the republic rose from 189,000 to 235,000, and their compensation from 305,000,000 fr. to 470,000,000 fr. But the amount paid in pensions has risen in forty years from 8.7 per cent. of the salaries paid to more than 12 per cent. The total has increased from 23,000,000 fr. to 63,000,000 fr. The meaning of these figures is that there is an increasing number of persons rendering no productive service who are supported out of the revenue of the community. It should be observed that these figures do not include military pensions, and that if the officers of the departments and communes are reckoned in the computation, the number of office-holders in France equals the effective force of her army and navy.

The effect of this increased governmental expenditure on private fortunes is, of course, serious. A communication was lately presented to the Statistical Society of Paris in which the budget of a well-to-do private family was carefully analyzed. The family consisted of a father and mother, three sons, aged from nineteen to fourteen, two daughters of sixteen and eleven, and two female servants. The total expenditure of this family in 1894 was 20,700 fr. The particulars were set forth with the greatest fulness, and the taxes on each item of expenditure computed. The expense of the family habitation was 3,111 fr., and the taxes were 29.45 per cent. of this. On food the taxes were 20.65 per cent., on heat and light 27 per cent., on transportation 23 per cent., on clothing 11 per cent., on entertainments 63 per cent. Upon 14,117 fr. expenditure the average tax was 23 per cent. Upon expenditure for repairs, domestic service, doctors, education, and wages, which amounted to 6,555 fr., no attempt to compute the rate of taxation was made, and it seems quite proper to regard these items as belonging to the budgets of other families, so far as the incidence of taxation is concerned. It would seem, therefore, that not far from one-quarter of the income of a well-to-do bourgeois French family goes to meet the exactions of the Government.

The publication of this budget aroused journalistic comments similar to those which were heard in this country when the income tax was under discussion. A few journals exclaimed at the weight of the burden of taxation; the rest took the position, "Only give us the income and we will gladly pay the tax." But it cannot be denied that the showing is calculated to excite alarm. It is quite possible that the ratio of taxation may have been in some cases estimated too high; it is fallacious, for instance, to assume that articles upon which there is an import duty are necessarily increased in price by the amount of the duty. But these errors are offset by others on the opposite side; and if we take the total governmental expenditure of France from the official statement of 1893 as 3,475,000,000 francs, we see that it amounts to over 90 francs per head of population. If the total revenue of the French people is estimated at twenty milliards, the expense of the Government would be 17½ per cent.; so that it is fair to say that the tax-gatherer takes one franc out of every five francs of income, if not one out of every four.

The tribulations of the "debtor class" have been of late very loudly proclaimed; but these computations show that the position of the creditor class is not altogether enviable. There are other features of the economic situation which make the future still more anxious for people of property. In addition to the incessant imposition of new taxes, those who have money to invest are confronted with a steady fall in the rate of interest. Twenty years ago 7 per cent. was generally obtained on mortgages in New York city. Now it is 5 or 4½ or 4 per cent., and this decline measures the general diminution of the rate of return on investments. In this country there are still chances for enterprising young men to start out without capital and make their fortunes; but in France both natural conditions and social habits prevent. In that country the class depending for their support to a great extent on the income from accumulated property is very large. Young men, on account of military service and a system of prolonged professional examinations, do not expect to start out in life before they are twenty-six or twenty-seven years old. But if the family income is to be much further reduced, many young men will be unable to command the means of education. There can be no further economy in reducing the size of families; the limit has been reached there. If the exactions of Government are to be increased, and the rate of interest is still to decline, the disposition to accumulate will inevitably be checked. What is the use of saving money if it will bring in only 3 or 4 per cent., and if income and inheritance taxes are to be piled up in the future? Who can expect to put by enough to enable himself to live on his income? and if he must continue to work for a living, why should he not spend as he goes on, and either dispense with children, or give up trying to accumulate for them property which will produce little income, and which a paternal government will fine them for receiving? Parsimony was once an economic virtue, to be encouraged by the state; but its results have been so exuberant that those who do not directly share them have become envious, and demand that the state shall reverse its policy. But the ultimate results of discouraging saving will prove more disastrous to the poor than to the rich; for if the accumulation of capital should be checked, employment would diminish and the wages of labor would decline.

ALASKA REVISITED.—VI.

AUGUST, 1895.

IN closing these notes on the Territory, a comparison between the Alaska of twenty or thirty years ago and that of to-day naturally suggests itself. How have the hopes and anticipations of that earlier time been fulfilled or missed fulfilment? What future is promised for this vast and to many still mysterious region?

As regards its inhabitants a complete change is conspicuous. Some thousands of white fishermen, hunters, miners, and prospectors are now scattered along the coast and rivers—on the whole, a hard-working, orderly set, with here and there a rascally whiskey-smuggler or a stranded gentleman. Apart from a few mining camps, the parasites who live by the vices of oth-

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ers are few. A country where he who would live must work is not attractive to them. Cut off from direct contact with the rest of the United States, Alaska is really a colony and not a frontier Territory, in the sense usually understood. As such, its needs should have been the subject of study and appropriate legislation, the neglect of which by Congress so far is bitterly and justly resented by the entire population. In fact, this aspect of our relations to Alaska illustrates clearly the worst defects of our Government as at present administered. Into political matters I shall not enter, but must observe that among the numerous ill-paid officials few are well prepared to handle the difficult questions presented in such a community; and the executive, such as it is, is without the legal authority or the proper facilities for governing or even visiting the greater part of the region it is supposed to control. The state of the law is uncertain, the seat of authority obscure, divided illegitimately between naval officers, the revenue-cutter service, and a powerless Governor, who, whatever his wishes and intentions, is not permitted by the law to control anything. If it were not for the orderly character and good sense of the white population, the Territory might easily become a pandemonium. This condition of things is disgraceful, and reform is urgently needed.

The change in the native population of southeastern Alaska has been remarked upon in a previous letter. In a general way a similar change has taken place all over the Territory. The primitive condition of the natives has almost wholly disappeared. The turf-covered hut has given way to frame shanties; log houses are rarely built. The native dress has disappeared, replaced by cheap ready-made clothing, shabby even when new. Native manufactures, utensils, weapons, curios, all are gone, or made only in coarse facsimile for sale to tourists. The native buys flour and tea, cooks his salmon in a frying-pan, and catches his cod or halibut with a Birmingham hook and a Gloucester line. In the whole of southern Alaska, thanks to the schools, the children and many young people speak fairly good English. If the present influences continue, another generation will see the use of English universal and the native languages chiefly obsolete. The day of the ethnological collector is past. Southeastern Alaska is swept clean of relics; hardly a shaman's grave remains inviolate.

In other parts of the Territory the same is more or less true. The native population is focussing about the commercial centres; the people gather where work and trade afford opportunities; and I have seen more than one pretentious church standing empty among the abandoned houses of a formerly prosperous village. There is some admixture of blood in marriages between the often attractive "Creole" women and the incoming settlers. These marriages are often very fruitful, but the pure-blooded natives seem to be diminishing. The Aleuts, whose census is accurately made annually by the Greek Church, are distinctly losing ground, and will doubtless pass away in a few generations. The same is probably true of the Tlinkit people. As we approach the arctic region, changes of all sorts are less marked, and civilization has had less effect. The introduction of tame reindeer, if successful, will prove most important for the people of this region. Their natural food supply has been practically destroyed by the whites and by repeating firearms, of which the natives have many. The whales are almost extinct, and the whaling-fleet itself is nearly so. The walrus preceded the whale, and the hair-seal has never been sufficiently abundant in this region for a sole resource. The chief salmon streams are, or soon will be, monopolized by the whites, near the sea, and the natives of the Upper Yukon will go hungry. The present law allows unrestricted fishing to the natives, and a close time of one day a week for the whites. The latter hire the natives to fish during the prohibited day, and so the salmon have no close time. Where a salmon stream is monopolized by one firm, they do not usually cut their own throats by taking all the salmon, but, where there are several competing firms, there is little respite for the fish.

The codfishery was formerly carried on by two competing firms, who have now composed their differences. They had salting stations on shore, and bought fish at so much a thousand from fishermen who used small sailing-vessels or dories and fished near shore. Now it is found cheaper, and for other reasons preferable, to return to the older system of fishing in the open sea from a seagoing vessel, as on the Banks at the East. The preparation of the Alaska fish has often been hasty, careless, and inferior to that done in the East, so Alaska codfish, originally of equal quality, are less esteemed commercially than the Eastern cod. For some reason I do not understand, the Pacific Ocean at best offers but a small market for fish under present conditions; and so I look to see the codfishing industry develop slowly, and perhaps be the last, as it is in my opinion the most substantial and important, of the resources of the Territory. At present the salmon are commercially more important, but, unless more effectively supervised and regulated, they will meet with the same fate as the fisheries of California and the Columbia River. There should be a resident inspector at every important fishery; and as the business is carried on for at most two or three months in the year, a vigilant inspection by a cutter or fisheries vessel told off for this especial work would counteract any tendency to bribe the resident inspector. I have seen 3,500,000 pounds of canned salmon taken in one season from one small stream, representing at least 5,000,000 pounds of eatable fish, and it seems that an annual supply of the best fish-food, like that, is worth preserving. But if the work is to be put into the hands of the lowest class of political appointees instead of intelligent experts, making the offices will not save the fish.

In the matter of furs we may regard the fur-seal fishery as doomed. It is probable that few of the pelagic sealers will pay expenses after this season, and two or three years are likely to see the end of the business. It is costing us much more than the catch is worth now, and the most sensible way of ending the matter is generally felt to be the destruction at one fell swoop of all the seals remaining on the islands and the abandonment of the business.

The continental furs, owing to competition between traders, are now selling for nearly their full market value, and little profit can be expected from them. They are also growing more and more scarce, as the high prices stimulate trapping. The natural and satisfactory offset to this would be the establishment of preserves, such as the "fox farms" of which I have previously spoken. Many of these have been started, and the multitudinous islands offer opportunities for many more. But the business is hazardous, since there is no protection against poachers, and a very ill-judged attempt has been made, I am informed, by the Treasury, to impose, in addition to the annual sum for which the island is leased, a "tax" of $5 on each fox killed, over twenty, from each "farm." It is doubtful if the Treasury is entitled to tax anybody without the explicit authority of Congress, and a tax of 50 per cent. on the gross value of the product not only is oppressive and exorbitant, but will put a stop to a business which should be encouraged. This is probably another instance of the "government by Treasury clerk" from which Alaska has suffered, lo! these many years.

The timber of Alaska, though by no means insignificant, is not likely to be much sought for, except for local purposes, for many years. I may point out, however, that there are millions of acres here densely covered with the spruce best suited for wood pulp, and plenty of water power for pulp mills, so that this resource is not without a future.

A forthcoming report of the United States Geological Survey will treat of the existing and prospective mining industries.

To sum up, it may be said that the whaling and sealing industries of Alaska are practically exhausted; the fur trade is in its decadence; the salmon-canning in the full-tide of prosperity, but conducted in a wasteful and destructive manner which cannot long be continued with impunity. The cod and herring fisheries are imperfectly developed, but have a substantial future with proper treatment. Mineral resources and timber have hardly been touched. No business-like experiment with sheep or cattle on the islands has been tried by competent hands, while the introduction of reindeer, though promising well, is still in the experimental stage. Socially, the Territory is in a transition state, the industries of the unexploited wilderness are passing away, while the time of steady, business-like development of the more latent resources has not yet arrived. The magnificent scenery, glaciers, and volcanoes make it certain that Alaska will in the future be to the rest of the United States what Norway is to western Europe, the goal of tourists, hunters, and fishermen. Agriculture will be restricted to gardening and the culture of quick-growing and hardy vegetables for local use. The prosecution of most Alaskan industries being in untrained hands, failures and disappointment will no doubt be frequent; but, when the pressure of population enforces more sensible methods, the Territory will support in reasonable comfort a fair number of hardy and industrious inhabitants.

W. H. D.

CENTRALIZATION IN FRANCE.

PARIS, September 10, 1895.

THERE are some people who never speak of our French administration without saying "that administration which Europe envies." I do not know how much truth there is in this phrase, which has become almost proverbial. In France, what is called the administration has an army of defenders; you may count by thousands those who belong to it. This work of the Revolution, completed by Napoleon, has survived all the revolutions that have taken place in our century. It is characterized by simplicity, and affords such a powerful instrumentality to the Government, whatever its name may be, that all successive governments have used without attempting to change it. Under the Second Empire, during the long years of oppression and of silence which my generation knew, there arose at Nancy, the ancient capital of the Duchy of Lorraine, a school which called itself the school of decen-

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tralization. This school published pamphlets, even books, and delivered lectures on the necessity of giving more individual life to the French provinces and to the great French cities. As the school was not composed of open enemies of the imperial system, the Emperor Napoleon III., who was not inimical to new ideas, addressed a letter in 1863 to his Council of State, urging it to prepare legislative measures having in view to diminish or to remove the defects of the system of centralization. The Council of State was invited "to consult public and private interest by allowing all possible protection to the first, to the second, all desirable liberty."

There is a curious continuity in history, and it is not impossible to find much resemblance between the powers of the Roman governors in Gaul, of the intendants of Louis XIV., and of our prefects of the nineteenth century. M. Fustel de Coulanges, author of an important work under the title of 'Histoire des institutions politiques de l'ancienne France: La Gaule romaine' (1891), speaks with eulogy of the centralization introduced in Gaul by the Romans. "When the Roman Senate," he says, "organized the empire, towards the year 27 of our era, it conferred upon Augustus the proconsular power over one-half of the provinces and a right of supervision of the governors of all the others. This innovation, in which some saw perhaps an attack against liberty, was the *germ of a new administrative system.* It turned out, in fact, that the chiefs of the provinces, instead of being real monarchs governing in their own name, were only the agents, the lieutenants, of the Prince. This fact, so simple and apparently so insignificant, was what introduced into Europe administrative centralization." M. Fustel de Coulanges does not doubt that the people looked upon this centralization as a great benefit.

After the Frankish conquest of Gaul, we come upon an era during which any attempt at centralization became futile, and, in order to find anything resembling it, we must go back to the first efforts made by the French monarchy towards national unity. The history of the intendants may be found in many recent works. These officials were at first only like the "missi dominici" under the Carolingian monarchy, like the "Enquêteurs" under Saint Louis, like the "Réformateurs" under the first Valois—commissioners sent from province to province for the execution of the King's orders; but by degrees they came to hold permanent posts. In the *pays d'élection* (France was divided between the *pays d'élection* and the *pays d'états*, like Brittany, Languedoc, Burgundy, which had diets), forming the greater part of the kingdom, the intendant administered under the direction and control of the secretaries of state and of the King's Council. In the *pays d'états*, the diets voted, under the name of *don gratuit*, the annual budget. Under the Regency which followed the long reign of Louis XIV., the intendants had become so powerful that Law could say to D'Argenson: "Know that the kingdom of France is governed by thirty intendants. You have neither parlements, nor States, nor governors; thirty *maîtres des requêtes* attached to the provinces have in their hands the happiness or the misfortune of these provinces, their abundance or their sterility."

Tocqueville passed a judgment almost as severe on the system of centralization in his 'Ancien Régime et la Révolution.' His work is a sort of commentary on the words of Law. More recent historical works have shown that the intendants have been judged with too much severity, and that, as representatives of the monarchy and of the general interests of the country, they were often very useful instruments. The phrase "provincial liberty" or "municipal liberty" often covered a multitude of abuses. In many provinces the incidence of taxation was very inequitable. In Béarn, for instance, M. Louis Lacaze tells us, in a work on the provincial liberties in Béarn, that the intendants were "the initiators of right." "Who," he asks, "created, so to speak, the South of France by the opening of roads? Who proposed the works of public utility—bringing before the diets a project for dyking the Gave, determining the construction of a bridge in Pau, organizing a sort of insurance against the periodical epidemics among cattle, and liquidating the communal debts? It is hard to acknowledge, but it was the intendant." There may be some exaggeration in the part thus attributed to the intendant, but we must remember that in Languedoc the *canal du Midi* was undertaken by virtue of an edict of Louis XIV., under the direction of Colbert, and that the diets of Languedoc at first tried to refuse their subvention to this great work.

The intendants, however, had become as unpopular under Louis XVI. as the provincial parliaments. Necker decided the King to make great reforms and to have provincial assemblies. M. Léonce de Lavergne wrote in great detail the history of these 'Provincial States under Louis XVI.' This work was severely judged by Tocqueville and is now well forgotten. The intendants were allowed to remain, but they were made powerless. The new organization was not even fairly tried, and soon there came a great cry for the States-General. The Constituent Assembly laid the foundations for a new centralization. It abolished all privileges. It divided France into departments, all subject to the same laws. It is certainly singular, but it is quite certain, that the provinces did not make even the semblance of a fight for their old privileges, traditions, and delimitations. The new territorial and administrative unity was accepted without any resistance.

The Constituent Assembly worked, however, unconsciously. It had in view the creation of department assemblies; it abolished the intendants, and left almost nothing between the department assemblies and the central power. But, in order to make its work a most perfect instrument of centralization, nothing was needed but the reëstablishment of the intendants under the name of prefects; and this change could be done in a moment and by the stroke of a pen. The system organized by the Constituent Assembly could produce only anarchy. The Convention felt the necessity of strengthening the central powers: its commissioners had unbounded powers; they were the connecting link between the intendants and the prefects. After the convulsions of the Terror, France had, so to speak, no more institutions; the laws of the year viii. were the first new definition of the relations of the State to the departments and to the communes. The State assumed the right to protect the citizens, to levy the taxes; it established the hierarchy of the prefects, the sub-prefects and mayors.

Pasquier, speaking of this Constitution of the year viii., says in his memoirs:

"The consequences of such a change were great. The principle of unity of action in the midst of all the territorial divisions, the well-established responsibilities, promptly introduced order into the Government. . . . What was more appreciated than anything was the satisfaction caused by the disappearance of a number of small functionaries, without any *merit or capacity, who for ten years had* become masters of the administration in the departments and the arrondissements. Most of them issued from the lowest ranks of society, and they were all the more inclined to have the weight of their authority felt. It seemed that a great gain was made when people had to deal with only one representative of authority, who, in order to maintain himself in an important post, would find it to his interest to gain the esteem of those over whom he administered."

Under the Empire, the members of the councils-general, of the arrondissement councils, and of the municipal councils were chosen by the prefect from a list of notabilities drawn up by the electors. The deliberations of all these councils were controlled by the central power. Under the Restoration, it was proposed to take away this power from the prefects; but this change was accomplished only after the Revolution of 1830. The laws of March 28, 1831, and of July 18, 1837, on the communes, of June 22, 1833, and May 10, 1838, on the departments, gave to the commune and department the right to choose directly their representatives in the municipal councils, the arrondissement councils, and the councils-general. But as the mayors, besides representing the communes, are the agents of the State in all matters of general interest, their choice was reserved to the sovereign or to the prefects, according to the population of the communes. They were, however, always to be taken from among the municipal councillors directly chosen by the people.

M. Ancoc, one of our authorities in all questions relating to administrative matters, has made himself the advocate of this régime in various publications. He has been bold enough to attack M. de Tocqueville, who, in his famous works, assumed the defence of a complete municipal autonomy: "It is in the commune," said Tocqueville, "that the strength of a free people resides." M. Ancoc maintains that the central power, without treating the commune as a minor, has a right to control its decisions and to see that they are in conformity with general legislation. The prefect is not absolute, and his decisions can always be impugned before the Council of State, which is the supreme administrative court. Much may undoubtedly be said in favor of the greatly abused centralization, and of the ordered hierarchy of powers and attributions which it creates; but, in this case as in many others, the old proverb, "Tant vaut l'homme, tant vaut la chose," is truly applicable. There is no doubt that, with eighty intelligent prefects, independent of all local interests, France would be well administered. Under Louis Philippe, the prefects remained many years in the same department, learned to know all its wants, were independent to a great extent of the Deputies from their departments; now they have become their nominees and their slaves. France is really administered at the present hour by the Deputies and the Senators. They will say to you very quietly "mon préfet," "mon sous-préfet." As soon as the prefect does not do their work, or refuses anything to their electoral agents, they turn to the Minister of the Interior and ask for his removal; and, in our present state of parliamentary equilibrium, the Minister of the Interior dares not refuse anything to the Senators and the Deputies, who have his fate in their hands.

Taine, who was not a friend of centralization, said that at any rate it had one advantage: it preserved us from democratic autonomy. He was mistaken; the system, as it

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works at present, works entirely for the benefit of the electoral agents, and our democracy is a great machine, worked by them for the satisfaction of very narrow interests. Administrative centralization can produce good effects only if its principal agents, who are the prefects, are very independent, and can assume the character of arbiters in all questions where private interests and the general interest are in conflict.

Correspondence.

RALEGH'S 'DISCOVERIE.'

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Two weeks ago you called attention (pp. 170-171) to the probable existence of three distinct editions, bearing the same date, of Sir Walter Ralegh's narrative of his expedition to America, entitled 'The Discoverie of the Large, Rich, and Bewtiful Empire of Guiana,' London, 1596. All three of these contemporary editions are to be found in the New York Public Library, among the early books on America gathered by Mr. James Lenox, and deposited by him in the Lenox Library building.

The book was entered for publication by Robert Robinson, in the Register of the Company of Stationers, on the 15th of March, 1596 (1595 O. S.), and each edition bears his imprint. While they agree almost line for line throughout, there are typographical differences on every page. For the information of antiquarians, and as a means of bringing to light still other possible editions, a few of the peculiarities of the Lenox copies may be noted:

Red Morocco Copy.—The title, in the 5th line, begins *Empyre;* the 6th line ends *Citie;* the 7th line has the reading *Spanyards;* and the 15th line, *Stanneries.* Page 2, line 25, begins *monlie;* page 12, line 12, reads *to Spayne;* page 25, line 12, ends *grew dailie;* page 41, line 18, ends *VVa-;* page 55, line 25, has the reading *pretie knots;* page 76, line 9, begins *ble;.* page 77, line 18, ends *displant me, if;* page 88, line 27, ends *dovvn the riuer;* page 95 ends *carrie su-* in line 22, and *which* in line 23; page 103, line 5, ends *Spanyards;* page 104, line 3, begins *Spanyardes;* and page 112 has the readings *Spanyard* in line 4, *discouerie* in line 5, and *Siete bocas* in line 8. So far as can be judged by the title, this seems to be the edition described in the British Museum catalogue with the press-mark C. 32. g. 25, and perhaps it is also like the Grenville copy, which has the press-mark G. 7169. (1.)

Blue Morocco Copy.—The title, line 5, begins *Empire;* line 6 ends *City;* line 7 has the reading *spaniards;* and line 15, *Stanneries.* Page 2, line 25, begins *commonly;* page 12, line 12, reads *Spaine;* page 25, line 12, ends *grew dailie to;* page 41, line 18, ends *Wara;* page 55, line 25, has the reading *prittie knots;* page 76, line 9, begins *mable;* page 77, line 18, ends *displant mee;* page 88, line 27, ends *dcwne the riuer;* page 95 ends *carrie suger, gin-* in line 22, and *which the west* in line 23; page 103, line 5, ends *Spaniardes;* page 104, line 3, begins *Spaniardes;* and page 112 has the readings *Spaniard* in line 4, *discouery* in line 5, and *Sciete bocas* in line 8. This seems to be the edition reprinted by the Hakluyt Society in 1848.

Half Russia Copy.—The title, line 5, begins *Empire;* line 6 ends *Citie;* line 7 has the reading *spanyards;* and line 15 *Sannerries.* Page 2, line 25, begins *monly;* page 12, line 12, reads *to Spaine;* page 25, line 12, ends *grew daily;* page 41, line 18, ends *Wa;* page 55, line 25, has the reading *prettie knots;* page 76, line 9, begins *dable;* page 77, line 18, ends *displant me;* page 88, line 27, ends *down the riuer;* page 95 ends *carrie sugar* in line 22, and *which the* in line 23; page 103, line 5, ends *Spanyardes;* page 104, line 3, begins *Spanyards;* and page 112 has the readings *Spanyard* in line 4, *discouerie* in line 5, and *Sciete bocas* in line 8.

Wilberforce Eames.

New York, September 18, 1895.

A JEFFERSON LETTER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I find quoted in the August number of a magazine, the *Arena*, p. 441, more than half of the Jefferson letter which was published by Mr. Ford in your issue of July 25. Reference is given to Bancroft's 'History of the Constitution,' pp. 463-465, which is not accessible to me here, so that I cannot verify the quotation or say whether the whole letter is there published or not. It would seem, however, that Mr. Ford was at least partially incorrect in asserting that the letter had been "never yet printed."

There are several verbal differences, pointing to carelessness in the quoted text; as, for example, the following. . . .

Respectfully, James H. Dillard.

Harrisburg, Va., September 9, 1895.

[We are informed by Mr. Ford that he looked in the index of Bancroft's History, and found that there was no letter to the Rev. James Madison entered, and so took it for granted that it was not printed in his collection, whereas Bancroft in fact printed it as a letter to the other Madison, changing the date as if to make it more unrecognizable. We omit our correspondent's list of discrepancies because Mr. Ford has compared his copy anew with the original and satisfied himself of its correctness.—Ed. Nation.]

"GRASS-WIDOW."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Since I touched on this term in your issue for March 23, 1893, a good deal of matter connected therewith has been published, in the London *Notes and Queries* more especially. What we now know of it can be summarized in a few words.

Grass-widow, for which, in East Anglia, we sometimes hear *grace-widow*, has, besides its ordinary higher sense, the lower sense of 'an unmarried mother,' and also, though rather rarely, that of 'a harlot.' But, so far as appears, no one gives it more than one of its senses.

As to its etymology, we may at once dismiss the notion of its connection with the vulgar *grouse*, 'to rape,' instead of which, it has been stated, *grass* is used locally in the United States. For no proof has yet been brought forward that *grass-widow* anywhere bears the meaning of 'a girl who has been ravished.'

The existence of the German *strohwittwe*, the Low German *graswedewe*, and the Swedish *gräsenke* certainly suggests that it is somehow akin to them. That our expression was, originally, *grace-widow*, representing the medieval *vidua de gratia*, 'a divorced woman,' has been asserted, indeed, but has not been supported by any authority.

In the sixteenth century, *grass-widow* signified 'a mistress,' or something even more disreputable:

"In fayth, quod your frend, I thynke saynt Powle ment not so. For thē had wyuys ben, in his time, lytel better thā *grasse wydowes* be now." Sir Thomas More, *A dyaloge* (1529), fol. 86 *v.*

Had we, of old, both *grace-widow*, an ecclesiastical technicality, and *grass widow*, in one or other of its present senses? Again, is the first, as a rendering of *vidua de gratia*, anything but an invention of the other day, on the one hand, and, on the other hand, as an actual rusticism, anything but a phonetic corruption? Here in Suffolk, *grass*, particularly in *spear-grass* and *water-grass*, often has the sound of *gress*, or one so nearly like it as easily to be mistakable for that of *grace*. F. H.

Marlesford, England, September 5, 1895.

Notes.

The Lothrop Publishing Company, Boston, are to publish 'The Book of Athletics,' by Norman W. Bingham, jr., and 'Child Sketches from George Eliot,' selected by Julia Magruder, with illustrations.

A 'History of the Nineteenth Century' is the ambitious undertaking of Eugene L. Didier of Baltimore. The story will be told in decades, of which the first is now ready.

Bismarck's biographer, Charles Low, has taken in hand 'The German Emperor, William II.,' with Frederick Warne & Co. for publishers. The same firm have in preparation a new pocket edition of Milton's Poetical Works, in four volumes; a wholly new edition, with some unpublished addenda, of the Poems of Eliza Cook; 'Lancashire Idylls,' by J. Marshall Mather; and 'Chess Novelties,' by H. E. Bird.

Ginn & Co. announce 'Problems in Differential Calculus,' by Prof. Wm. E. Byerly of Harvard, and 'Outline of the Philosophy of English Literature—Part I: The Middle Ages,' by Greenough White.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, will soon issue 'The Journal of the Countess Krasinska in the Eighteenth Century'; 'Beatrice of Bayou Teche,' by Alice I. Jones; 'Life and Love,' by Miss Morley; and 'Means and Ends of Education,' by Bishop Spalding.

Spon & Chamberlain publish immediately 'An Elementary Text-book on Steam-Engines and Boilers,' by Prof. Kinealy, and 'Polyphase Electric Currents and Alternate Current Motors,' by Prof. S. P. Thompson.

Swan Sonnenschein & Co., London, will publish early in October a novel entitled 'Confession,' by Elizabeth E. Evans. It is a story of New England life, the scene being laid in a mountain village of Vermont.

The calendaring of the Records in the House of Lords proceeds surely, though slowly, as must necessarily be the case with a work of such magnitude. Mr. Felix Skene is performing this work for the Commission upon Historical Manuscripts. It will be good news to Americans in general, and to Pennsylvanians in particular, that among the documents which have been passing through Mr. Skene's hands are some, hitherto unknown, concerning William Penn and the early history of Pennsylvania. It will be a considerable time before the calendar dealing with this important "find" will be published, and, even

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after such publication, special authority from the House of Lords itself will be necessary before copies can be made by searchers.

The statement of a Leipzig journal that the late Prof. Heinrich von Sybel had left *druckfertig* a complete manuscript of the eighth volume of 'Die Begründung des Deutschen Reiches durch Wilhelm I.,' is unfortunately not true. Equally incorrect is the notion, generally current, that the work was to end with the seventh volume, which contains a narration of events from the opening of the Diet of the North German Confederation in March and the meeting of the Customs Parliament in April, 1868, to the declaration of war by France in July, 1870, and the futile efforts of Napoleon III. to form offensive and defensive alliances with Austria and Italy. It was the intention of the distinguished historian to write an eighth and concluding volume, describing the war of 1870 and its political culmination in the proclamation of the German Empire, just as, in the fifth volume, he had described the war of 1866 and its results in the reconstitution of the German States and the formation of the North German Confederation; but the execution of this plan was prevented by his sudden death in the seventy-eighth year of his age. Indeed, this final volume, so far from having been completed, was not even begun; only a few memoranda referring to the subject were found among his posthumous papers.

During the recent celebration of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Franco-German war, German newspapers and periodicals filled their columns with reminiscences of the terrible conflict, many of which are extremely interesting and permanently valuable contributions to contemporary history. Such, for example, are the extracts from the diary of the deceased Lieut.-Col. Bronsart von Schellendorff, who served as Chief of Division on Moltke's staff, and was sent, September 1, 1870, to the fortress of Sedan to demand the surrender of the French forces; and the stenographic report taken by Count von Nostiz of the negotiations between the French commander, Gen. Wimpffen, and Gen. Moltke and Count Bismarck on the night of September 2, published in a recent number of the *Militär-Wochenblatt*. After the capitulation, as Napoleon, on the morning of September 3, drove away into captivity escorted by a squadron of hussars, while Bismarck and Moltke watched the scene from a window, the latter remarked, with his usual sententiousness: "Voilà une dynastie qui s'en va." It was on the same day that the famous dinner took place in the headquarters of the army at Vendresse. For the first time since the beginning of the campaign champagne appeared on the table. King William filled his glass and drank the memorable toast to the health of his brave army, to the Minister of War, Roon, who sharpened the sword, to Moltke, who wielded it, and to Bismarck, whose conduct of affairs had raised Prussia to its present proud eminence. Moltke then turned to Bismarck and offered him a pinch of snuff. This act of polite appreciation called forth from our diarist the pertinent and punning comment: "Voilà la *prise* de Sedan."

The newest reprints on our table embrace an additional volume in the Messrs. Putnam's uniform edition of the Baroness Tautphoeus's works, namely, her historical novel, 'At Odds.' This makes a timely appearance in the midst of the Napoleonic revival. It is in two neat volumes. Turgeneff's 'Fathers and Sons' takes on the unfamiliar title of 'Fathers and Children' in Constance Garnett's version (Macmillan). Of the quality of the translation in this series we think we have already said enough. It is left not to Stepniak but to Edward Garnett to appreciate the novel and define the Nihilist hero, in the Introduction. "What, then, is Bazaroff?" he asks; and answers, "He is the bare mind of Science first applied to Politics." Mrs. Anne Thackeray Ritchie furnishes a graceful introduction to Miss Edgeworth's 'Ormond' redivivus (Macmillan); and Thackeray's praise of Marryat's 'Jacob Faithful' is made the keynote of Mr. Hannay's introduction to this companion volume in an admirably chosen series, openly and handsomely printed and well illustrated. 'Great Expectations' and 'Hard Times' make one volume in Macmillan's series of Dickens reprints —at first following first editions, now following the one corrected by the author in 1869; and the novelist's namesake supplies the unfailingly interesting account of the work, biographically and bibliographically.

The Harpers have collected into a neat volume the articles 'About Paris,' by Mr. Richard Harding Davis, which have appeared in their magazine during the past year, and publish them under that collective title. Mr. Davis gives, in his bright and readable style, a picture of the tourists' Paris, but he has seen or recorded little of the Paris of those who live there. The Boulevards and the Bois and a dash at the more notorious night resorts make up most of what he shows us. It is a Paris without the Seine and its quays and bookstalls, without Notre Dame and the great museums, without its old gardens or its Latin Quarter. Mr. Davis's remarks about Americans in Paris, in spite of their jaunty self-sufficiency, contain a good deal of salutary truth. The volume is embellished with Mr. C. D. Gibson's clever drawings, and is prettily bound. It is a pity, however, that the designer of the cover did not take the pains to get the arms of Paris right. The chief with the fleurs-de-lys should be blue, not white, and the galley should be gold.

The illustrated catalogue of the first exhibition of posters, at the London Aquarium (Brentano's), would hardly call for notice but that it is convenient to have an alphabetical list of the artists who devote, or lend, themselves to this branch of art in England and France. The half-tone prints of selected examples are numerous and characteristic. A well-known American archæologist, Mr. Joseph Thacher Clarke, furnishes a brief introduction.

The *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for September gathers up all that its space permits of Commencement doings and sayings, in addition to the customary news of classes, clubs, schools, marriages, and deaths. Every one who heard must be glad to read over Sir F. Pollock's oration before the Law School Association, with which the number opens. Mr. Winsor briefly outlines the nature of the remodelling of the Library building now going on. Judge Chamberlain sketches the life of a Federal idol, Fisher Ames, whose portrait from the Harvard collection is the third in a valuable series of reproductions. We note further the founding of a Wendell Phillips Memorial Scholarship for the advantage of students who, when the junior year is reached, have given proofs of oratorical talent worth cultivating.

The *Psychological Review* for September contains several articles of general interest. Prof. Royce writes on "Anomalies of Self-consciousness," endeavoring to find in the recent work in child-psychology which emphasizes the social influences present in the development of the child's sense of self, the reason why derangements of the sense of personality in adults so often have a distinctly social reference. He also thinks that it is by reason of the associations formed in the early years between organic sensations and social experiences—in the complex make-up of the self-notion—that the variations of organic conditions get their remarkable influence in producing all kinds of anomalies of self-consciousness. Mr. Havelock Ellis of London reports cases of "Dreaming about the Dead," and shows their bearing on certain anthropological theories. The paper by R. Meade Bache on "Reaction-Time according to Race" also suggests an interesting hypothesis. He supposes that higher culture, by putting emphasis upon the deliberative processes, tends to impair the automatism and celerity of the lower and more reflex functions, and proposes to test it by investigating the reaction-time of subjects of different races. He carried out the research upon ten individuals each of whites, negroes, and North American Indians. His results seem in the main to confirm the hypothesis, except that the reaction-time of the Indian is shorter than that of the negro, while the opposite was to be expected. The whites, however, gave, as he anticipated, the longest time of all. The author accounts for the Indian's short time by his method of life; while the negro, he thinks, has a slower reaction than is normal to him in consequence of the hereditary influences of slavery, by which he has been made servile and sluggish. The subject is interesting enough to be pursued further. The "Discussion" and "Literature" sections of the *Review* are full and able as usual.

Capt. F. D. Lugard gives a graphic account of his successful race with a French expedition to Borgu on the Niger, in the *Geographical Journal* for September. Though mainly concerned with the incidents of the journey, he sketches briefly the history of the Bariba, the inhabitants of Borgu, a warrior race who have thus far maintained their independence against both African and European invaders. They are also inveterate raiders and robbers of caravans, so that the trade between the interior and the colonies of France, Germany, and England, of which their country is the Hinterland, has been almost destroyed. Capt. Lugard, the first white man to reach Nikki, the principal town, was hospitably received by the king, and negotiated a treaty with him which throws the country open to the British. Whether this will be an advantage or not depends largely upon the success of the attempts now being made, with the powerful support of the Colonial Secretary, Mr. Chamberlain, to restrict the liquor traffic which strangles legitimate trade and ruins the native races. Mr. J. T. Last's "Notes on Western Madagascar" are rather disappointing, for, after a somewhat detailed account of his collecting excursions in the northern and central coast region, he gives but a few words to an expedition into the little known Antinosi country in the south. Referring to the prevalent impression that the Hovas are practically masters of the whole island, he says that probably not half the natives are subjects of the queen, the independent tribes being those living south and west of a line drawn from Mujanga in the northwest to Fort Dauphin in the southeast.

The annual report of Mr. E. H. Hankin, bacteriologist to the Government of the North-western Provinces, as summarized by the London *Times*, contains some very interesting and surprising conclusions. Numerous investiga-

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tions show that the four great rivers, including the Ganges, afford "a purer drinking supply than European rivers comparable in size." This he attributes to the fact that, being composed largely of melted snow, they contain little organic matter, and that the intense sunlight, acting at a high temperature, is peculiarly destructive to microbes. In proof of this he says that while a cubic centimetre of water at the bathing and washing places at Allahabad contains over 90,000 microbes, "at a distance just sufficient to be beyond immediate contamination, only 360 microbes could be detected in each cubic centimetre of water." In regard to the supply from wells, he has come to the conclusion that the caste restrictions and prohibitions, especially those forbidding strangers or men of lower castes to touch their drinking-vessels or to draw water from their wells, are not, as has been supposed, the outcome of cruel and irrational prejudice, but are founded on a basis of sound sense and a knowledge of sanitary laws learned by centuries of experience. The plea of caste contamination acts as a defence against well-pollution.

The translation of the Bible into different languages and versions goes on with almost accelerated rapidity. From the ninety-first annual report of the British and Foreign Bible Society it appears that "the editorial subcommittee have had to deal with over one hundred versions during the year 1894." There is now passing through the press the first Pushtu Bible in the language of the people of Afghanistan, and a marginal-reference Bible in Malagasy, while versions for natives of Africa, New Guinea, Japan, the Himalayas, and Assam have recently been published.

With the opening of its new McMahon School of Philosophy on October 1, the Catholic University at Washington, D. C., will admit all properly prepared applicants. Hitherto the courses of this University have been open only to those who had taken holy orders in the Roman Catholic Church; hereafter there will be no discrimination made against either laymen or women who may desire to take the courses in science, philosophy, and arts. But while women students will be admitted to the lectures and studies in both the regular and special courses, they will not be permitted either to matriculate or to receive degrees.

We touch elsewhere on the report of the Committee on the English Department of Harvard University. Copies of this document can be obtained gratuitously on application to J. Bertram Williams, Publication Agent of the University, Cambridge, Mass.

"S." writes to us from Boston: "I sympathize with your correspondent who asks your aid to save the name of Deer Isle from extinction through the substitution of Deer Island. Deer Island to a Bostonian suggests, as Blackwell's does to a New Yorker, crime and poverty, having been a locality for similar institutions for years." We may add still another argument, namely, that a Deer Island lies adjacent to the coast of Maine in Passamaquoddy Bay.

—A number of interesting points are brought out in Mr. Alexander McAdie's paper on "Protection from Lightning," just published by the Weather Bureau at Washington. He quotes the well-known answer of certain Glasgow manufacturers when urged by Lord Kelvin, the foremost physicist of our time, to put up lightning-rods, that "it is cheaper to insure than to do so." Careful search by means of reliable statistics reveals the fact that in the United States for the five years, 1890 1894, lightning caused the death of 1,120 persons, practically all between April and September; June and July showing the greatest number. In the United States, during the nine years ending in 1893, there were 4,175 fires caused by lightning, nearly all east of the Rocky Mountains, with an aggregate loss of considerably more than fourteen million dollars. From these figures and other information, the author proves that it is certainly worth while to erect protective apparatus. As to the kind of buildings struck, the same years show 2,679 barns, 129 churches, and 831 dwellings. The statistics for 1894 are noteworthy for the number of lives lost and the amount of property destroyed. Dr. Oliver Lodge states that "almost any conductor is probably better than none, but few or no conductors are absolute and complete safeguards." This is largely because of the heretofore incompletely understood character of lightning as an oscillatory discharge. Interesting observations are recorded with regard to the kinds of trees most frequently struck, the varieties of soil peculiarly favorable to such action, and the influence of running water. Paragraphs upon the proceedings to be at once taken in case of apparent death from lightning and upon the efficiency of conductors follow, while the paper closes with fine photographs of destructive lightning flashes, and illustrations of their effects upon certain trees and monuments.

—Both Sparks (vol. vii., pp. 66 to 73) and Bigelow (vol. ii., pp. 291 to 299) give Franklin's letter to Peter Collinson of May 9, 1753, without its concluding portion, which is said to have been wanting in the copy from which it had been taken. A correspondent of the *Nation* has found among the Shaftesbury papers (section x. 24) preserved in the Public Record Office, London, a copy of the letter *in extenso*, which gives the concluding portion in the following words:

"[I do not think you are generally become such slaves to your Vices, as to draw down that *Justice* Milton speaks of when he says that] sometimes nations will descend so low from Reason which is Virtue, that no Wrong, But Justice, and some fatal Curse annex'd deprives them of their outward Liberty

"Their inward lost.—Parad. lost.

"In History we find that Piety, Publick Spirit, & Military Spirit, & Military Prowess have their Flows, as well as their Ebbs, in every Nation, and that the tide is never so low but it may rise again. But should this dreaded fatal change happen in my time, how should I even in the midst of the Affliction rejoice, if we have been able to preserve those invalueable Treasures, and can invite the good among you to come and partake of them! O let not Britain seek to oppress us, but like an Affectionate Parent endeavour to secure Freedom to her Children; They may be able one day to assist her in Defending her own—whereas a mortification begun in the Foot may spread upwards to the Destruction of the nobler Parts of the Body.

"I fear I have already extended this rambling Letter, beyond your Patience, and therefore conclude with requesting your Acceptance of the inclosed Pamphlet from

"Sir,

"Your most humble servant,

"B. FRANKLIN."

—In the year 1808, the *Correio Braziliense*, a prominent Brazilian journal, drew attention to the disadvantages likely to result from the establishment of the seat of government at a seaport, inaccessible from many parts of the country, and exposed at any time to the attacks of a hostile navy. Not until recently, however, have active measures been taken towards transferring the capital from Rio Janeiro to some point in the interior. The constitution of 1890 provides for the reservation of 9,000 square miles in the "Central Plateau" of Brazil, and the founding of a new capital. Accordingly, in 1892, a commission of twenty-one scientists was appointed by the Minister of Public Works, with Dr. Luiz Cruls as chief, with instructions to explore this region and to define the boundaries of the portion to be set apart as a new "Federal District." The results of the exploration, which was undertaken in the summer of 1892, have been published in a quarto volume of 365 pages, in Portuguese and French, illustrated by numerous excellent heliogravures. The report of the chief of the commission describes the methods employed in the scientific investigations, and gives an account of the journeys of the different divisions and a summary of the work accomplished by the expedition. Following this are special reports on the geology, meteorology, botany, and zoölogy of the Plateau by different members of the commission. An atlas, containing plans of the route-surveys and maps of the country traversed, accompanies the report. The future Federal District lies in the neighborhood of the Pyrenneos in the State of Goyaz, about 750 miles from the coast by the railway which is projected. It contains the head waters of the important rivers Tocantins, São Francisco, and Paraná. The mean altitude is 3,600 feet, and the climate is salubrious, the average temperature being 67 degrees Fahr., so that European immigrants would not experience the discomforts of acclimatation. Water is abundant and of excellent quality, and the supply of stone and wood for building purposes adequate. The topographical features of the territory are such that no difficulty would be met with in selecting a site for a great city. The growth of Brazil has hitherto been confined to a limited portion of the coast and some of the southern States, but it is now found that there exists in the interior a region abounding in natural advantages, only awaiting development to become an important commercial and industrial centre, and a powerful factor in the prosperity of the republic.

—In *La Révolution Française* of August 14 M. Cl. Perraud prints nine hitherto unpublished letters of Mme. Roland, which he has discovered while engaged upon an edition of her correspondence. These letters were written in 1791 to Champagneux, a Lyons municipal officer. Mme. Roland was at the time in Paris with her husband, who was trying to persuade the Constituent Assembly to incorporate into the national debt certain expenditures of Lyons ordered by the royal power and for its needs. The letters do not bring to light new facts about the period, but they give vivid impressions of the state of feeling among Mme. Roland's friends and their party associates during the eventful summer of the Flight to Varennes and the Massacre of the Champ de Mars. The radicals were evidently anxious to be rid of the Deputies of the Constituent Assembly, who, according to Mme. Roland's letter of May 27, were tired and "usés." She thinks them much enamoured of power, and that, if not promptly turned out, they may re-enact the drama of the Long Parliament. Her July letters reveal the panic into which her friends were thrown by the Massacre of the Champ de Mars. She even goes so far as to declare that more circumspection was required than in the days when the Bastille was still standing. Another curious remark was made under the influence of the news that Roland, whom she always calls "notre ami," had been defeated in his candidacy for the Legislature

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from the department of the Rhône-et-Loire. After expressing the hope that other departments will not act like theirs, she says: "Mais croyez que nous n'aurons pas de législature sans un parti de l'*opposition*, qui sera toujours celui des honnêtes gens et de la minorité." She would hardly have subscribed to this statement a year later, when the Convention was in session, or even during the last months of the Legislature. The friends of Danton and Robespierre would have had no difficulty in doing so, however.

—In the winter semester of 1894-95, Dr. Theobald Ziegler, Professor of Philosophy in the University of Strassburg, delivered a course of seventeen academical lectures, which have been just published in a volume entitled 'Der deutsche Student am Ende des 19. Jahrhunderts' (Stuttgart: Göschen). Two centuries ago the famous jurist and humanitarian reformer, Christian Thomasius, gave a series of discourses in the newly founded University of Halle "On the Wretched Condition of Students," which, as the title implies, portrayed the life and character of the *civis academicus* of that day in a not altogether rosy light. Since then hodegetics, as the general subject is pedantically termed, has become a distinct discipline and more or less prominent branch of study in the University curriculum. In rare cases the topic has been treated with such breadth of view and superior force of intellect as to acquire a national importance, as, for example, in Fichte's 'Vorlesungen über die Bestimmung des Gelehrten' (Jena, 1794), which aimed to inspire the youth of his time with a nobler conception of the mission of the scholar, Schelling's 'Vorlesungen über die Methode des akademischen Studiums' (Stuttgart, 1803), and Erdmann's 'Vorlesungen über akademisches Leben und Studium' (Leipzig, 1858). Prof. Ziegler's lectures differ from those of Schilling and Erdmann, and are similar in scope to those of Thomasius, inasmuch as they are addressed exclusively to students and touch only incidentally upon the functions of professors and other features of academical life and study. The old scholastic conundrum "Quid est studio*sus* sine studio?" serves as an appropriate text to his severe discourse on the character and career of the *fin-de-siècle* German student, who regards academical freedom as a release from moral laws and obligations, and uses it as a license for laziness and licentiousness. In order to correct this false and fatal notion of academical freedom he discusses its real nature, and gives a brief sketch of its mediæval and essentially monastic origin and its historical development until it was gradually restricted and finally abrogated as a legal privilege.

—In civil and criminal suits the university student of to-day is amenable to ordinary courts of justice; he is also subject to the same police control as the common citizen; the most despised *Philister* is his peer in matters of judicial punishment. The only exception to this rule is the right of the student in Prussia to be confined in the university "Carcer" if he has been condemned to not more than a fortnight's imprisonment. Academical freedom, in its original juristic sense, is an institution of the past, and there remains only academical discipline administered by the rector and senate of the university, who, however, do not possess absolute authority, even in this limited sphere, since they are forced to expel any student upon whom a judicial penalty has been imposed involving the forfeiture of civil rights. Academical freedom, as now understood, is partly social, but chiefly intellectual. After twelve years of strict pedagogical supervision, ending with a rigorous examination, the youth enters the university, where he is at once freed from all constraint as to the choice and pursuit of his studies. It is assumed that, having been compelled to do regular work during this plastic period of his life, he will continue to do so from sheer force of habit after the compulsion ceases. All that the university requires of him as a matriculate is, that he shall make a selection and be inscribed as an attendant of at least one course of lectures each semester; whether he actually attends them or not, is his own affair. In general, this theory may be said to work fairly well, and the great majority of students make a proper and profitable use of their academical freedom; only in exceptional instances does a young man, after a dozen years of coercive studiousness, assert his newly acquired liberty and show his appreciation of it by doing nothing or worse than nothing, thus answering to the definition given by the learned and facetious Balthasar Schupp, more than two centuries ago: "Studiosus est animal aut nihil aut aliud agens." Prof. Ziegler's defence of unrestricted *Lehr- und Lernfreiheit*, the scholar's perfect liberty in searching after truth and in publishing the results of his investigations, is vigorous and timely. Equally judicious and pertinent are his remarks on drinking, duelling, ostentation, and extravagance, sexual immorality, factitious conceptions of honor, corps and clubs, associations in and out of the university, the student's relations to the social question, politics, religion and the Church, science, art, and literature, academical instruction, professional study and general culture, intercourse with professors, use and abuse of vacations, graduation, and examination for the public service. The little volume may be read with profit by the American as well as by the German student. It is already in the fourth edition.

DEAN STANLEY.

The Life and Correspondence of Arthur Penrhyn Stanley. By R. E. Prothero. Charles Scribner's Sons.

THERE are only two kinds of biographies which it is comparatively easy to write—those of persons whose career is interwoven with great events, and those of persons who, being themselves remarkable, have left records of their thoughts and purposes, of their experiences of life and their opinions of their contemporaries abundant enough to approach the peculiar charm of faithful self-portraiture. In the case of Dean Stanley neither advantage is present. Though he played always a worthy, and sometimes a conspicuous, part in the ecclesiastical struggles which marked the history of the Church of England from 1838 till 1880, these struggles do not keenly interest the present generation of Englishmen, whose minds are already filled by new questions and hopes. Though his letters, judging by the extracts given in these volumes, were bright, candid, and vivid, they relate mostly to passing events, and do not (except those which contain impressions of travel) embody quite enough that is exquisite in form or of permanent value for the student of life and thought to make them literature in the sense in which that name may be applied to the letters of Gray or Cowper, of William von Humboldt, or Carlyle, or Macaulay. Had the Dean kept a personal journal, it would probably have been of great interest, not only autobiographically, but historically, for he had a quite remarkable power of seizing the salient points in current history, and perceiving analogies between them and those of other times and countries. But it would appear that no such journal exists.

The Dean's present biographer is under two other disadvantages. He seems to have had only a very slight personal acquaintance with the man of whom he has had to write, eminently one of those whom it was hard to understand except from personal acquaintance. And the fourteen years which have passed since the Dean's death have so much changed the face of English society, the character of the Church of England, and the topics which occupy men's minds in England, that a good deal of what is recorded in these volumes seems already to belong to a comparatively remote past, and to have no very close bearing on the problems of to-day. We say "seems," for the real change is perhaps less great than people think it; but, for the purposes of the general reader and his interest in the book, seeming amounts to the same thing as reality.

Allowing for these difficulties, Mr. Prothero has done his work extremely well. He is almost invariably precise and accurate. He is impartial in dealing with controversial matters, whether ecclesiastical or political. He has been scrupulously careful to avoid the sins of Mr. J. A. Froude and of the biographer of Bishop Wilberforce, and has admitted nothing which could either needlessly pain the living or damage the reputation of the dead. Of Stanley himself he has taken a just and worthy view, not concealing his weaknesses—they were indeed venial weaknesses—and not unduly lauding his merits, but seeking so to relate the facts that his character and conduct should speak for themselves. His sympathy is unobtrusive and his admiration discerning. The book is well planned and agreeably written; and we have little to regret except the absence of that vividness of presentation which only intimate knowledge could have secured. We think, however, that a somewhat too sparing use has been made of Stanley's own correspondence. Especially in the second volume, which is largely occupied by an account of the various ecclesiastical controversies in which the Dean's love of freedom and unselfish courage involved him—controversies in themselves of comparatively slight interest—the full account given of their details should have been abridged to make room for more letters than we find; and the letters presented should have been given more in full, instead of in the sometimes scrappy extracts to which want of space appears to have reduced the biographer. Perhaps he may correct this in a future edition; though we infer that enlargement will be given only in the separate volume of letters already announced. There are, we believe, many of considerable charm and interest from which no extracts, or only very short extracts, have been made.

Stanley was a most characteristic product of the Church of England, and much might be pardoned to her if she produced such men in greater number. There is no country of Continental Europe, Protestant or Roman Catholic, in which such a man could have grown up—no Roman Catholic country, for in them an ecclesiastic is almost necessarily an ecclesiastic through and through, obliged to think so much of his church that he must put his country, his literary or scientific tastes, his personal friendships, in the second or third

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line; no Protestant country, for in none of them does a pastor enjoy the same social status, the same quasi-political position of authority and dignity, as the holder of a bishopric or a great deanery has in England. A distinguished professor at a famous university in Germany or Scandinavia affords the nearest parallel; but in those countries the universities have not the independence and wealth which still belong to them in England. Oxford and Cambridge have saved the Church of England from being too clerical, by associating the clergy on the one side with learning and literature, on the other with the upper classes and political life. Stanley was thus throughout his life quite as much a university man as a clergyman, and would, perhaps, have had both a happier and a more widely and permanently effective life had he remained at Oxford instead of going to be Dean of Westminster. He was not exactly a great teacher, in the sense of having a genius either for discourses or for exposition. His learning was not profound, nor was it accurate in details. His mind was not systematic. But it was incessantly active, and its alertness made it extremely suggestive and, in that sense, fertile. Everything interested him, and his interest communicated itself to others. One never met him in the street and talked to him for five minutes without hearing something which, if not remarkable, yet seemed worth remembering—something which no other person would or could have put exactly in the way he put it. This was a gift invaluable to him in his university, for it made his teaching stimulating and his personality attractive to his pupils. Oxford, however, was in his day much more of an ecclesiastical and political battle-ground than it is now, and less a place where many teachers prepare men for examinations and a few devote themselves to minute or abstruse studies. There was then far less examining, and also, it is fair to add, less learning. But there was a very brisk and bracing atmosphere which did more for most men than the present system seems to achieve.

Stanley was the life and centre of every academic movement and every ecclesiastical struggle. He was full of fight and courage, and wrote and preached like one who felt himself always making history, not from personal vanity, but because his imagination expanded everything it touched, and made the University seem an image of the mighty world. He was so little of a dogmatic theologian that his enemies—and his only enemies were to be found among those who did not know him personally—accused him of unconscientiousness in remaining within the pale of the Church of England. Unconscientious he certainly was not. There were certain propositions in the Thirty-nine Articles which he probably did not hold, or at any rate set very little store by. But his was not the kind of mind that actively disbelieves and feels it is disbelieving. His delight in all things was to discover resemblances and extenuate differences; and his attachment to the historical Church of England was so profound that he would have felt himself far more substantially at variance with any other Christian community, even if in abstract points of doctrine he might have come nearer to it than he did to the opinions of ninety-nine one-hundredths of the Anglican clergy. The historical Church of England, he loved to say, was built upon compromise, and her history had been one of compromise; and he would have thought it a great injury to her comprehensiveness for any one to leave her because he did not agree with the current interpretations of her formulas, or even with the literal construction and original sense of portions of those formulas themselves. This attitude of mind was that of some of his most eminent Broad Church contemporaries, and though it may be pushed to excess, and could not so well be defended in a country of many free churches, all based on creeds which they have settled for themselves, the circumstances of England still commend it to some men who differ more widely from the Thirty-nine Articles than Stanley did.

The personal charm which endeared the Dean to his friends is not easy to describe. He had a good deal of reserve, and admitted very few persons to real intimacy. But he had an immense capacity for interesting himself in and helping those whom he thought worthy, even when they had no claim on him; and this help was rendered in such a cordial and ungrudging way that it gave a pleasure to the recipient that might be disproportionate to the magnitude of the service. There was also a sort of freshness and brightness about him, an unslaked and unslakable curiosity and eagerness, which made his society extremely stimulating. He seemed to be always getting out of life the most it could yield; and in his company one felt infected by this keenness of perception and enjoyment, and became for the time able to discern in passing events more than they meant to ordinary observers. He had that delightful gift of being unlike any one else which does so much to make people interesting, and he added to it a grace of manner and a quickness of sympathy which dispelled the shyness young men felt in approaching a person of such eminence. Few men have mixed so much in the world or lived so much in the air of a court, and yet contracted so little of worldliness or the faults of the courtier. In the society of London he filled a place which has remained empty ever since, and those who knew him well still, after fourteen years, miss the slight little figure that darted about like a fire-fly, and seemed, though so short sighted that he could not recognize a face at ten yards, to perceive and grasp and judge all that was passing, and feel regretfully how often they would like to know what Arthur Stanley thought of this or that event.

TWO ARCHITECTURAL WORKS.

The Cathedrals of England and Wales. [*The Builder* Series.] London: *The Builder.* 1894.

Architecture for General Readers: A Short Treatise on the Principles and Motives of Architectural Design. With an Historical Sketch. By H. Heathcote Statham, Fellow of the Institute of Architects, Editor of *The Builder.* With illustrations drawn by the Author. London. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895.

THE literary part of 'The Cathedrals of England and Wales' consists of a brief essay upon each of the thirty-two cathedrals named. These essays are sometimes signed, as the preface is, by the initials of Mr. H. H. Statham, editor of the weekly London journal the *Builder*. The article on Lincoln Cathedral is by Canon Venables, that on Gloucester by the architect, F. S. Waller, that on Carlisle by the architect, C. J. Ferguson, and that on Ely by Mr. A. Beresford Pite. The majority, however, are not signed, and all are probably taken from the columns of the *Builder*. They are of mixed character, containing history and criticism; and each one, as a brief record of the cathedral building and its fortunes, is of great interest to a student of architectural antiquities. Illustrations are given in the columns of the text, sometimes as many as six or seven to a single notice, and these generally deal with details of the interior. In the great deficiency of easily accessible accounts of these buildings, the present series of notices is valuable. It is to be desired that they should be printed in a small and inexpensive volume.

In the present heavy folio they are the accompaniment of thirty-two general plans and thirty-two views, all reproduced by one or another photographic process from original drawings. The plans are of the greatest value, and are a real accession to the existing material of architectural and archæological study. They are on a large scale and very complete in detail, and we are fully prepared to admit the claim of superior and hitherto unattained accuracy which is made for them in the preface. The reproduction of them is only moderately successful, and in some cases the lettering is much too small, or too confused with the dotted and broken lines of the vaulting-plan to be easily read. This imperfection of the process is not, however, so marked as to destroy the value of the elaborate distinction made by the tinting of the section of walls and piers, whereby the different epochs of the building are denoted, though this device is of but a limited utility. It gives the dates of the substructure, but cannot hint at the supremely important changes which have taken place above, where fifteenth-century vaulting springs from thirteenth-century piers—and greater changes than that. All this weighed and considered, the plans remain a really prodigious gain to all students, and put the study of English mediæval architecture on a new basis. The text illustrations, above cited, have all the appearance of perfect trustworthiness, and are very exact so far as we have been able to test them; they are fairly well reproduced, and are often even pleasing in themselves. One longs for a larger supply of them. A thousand such pictures, with these plans to elucidate them, how valuable a set would that be! For these subjects are often hard to reach with the camera; in any event, photographs of such details are hard to come by, and it is photographs of such details that the student most desires

As for the general views in the volume before us, the pains and labor and thought which have gone into these large drawings are not to be ignored, but the method is out of date for representing architectural effect. Studies of building and of the way in which parts are put together are best in line-work, as Viollet-le-Duc has shown, and as the studies in the text of this very book help to show; but for the artistic result let us take such work as that in 'La Normandie Monumentale,' in the 'Épidaure' of MM. Defrasse and Lechat, in Fritsch's 'Deutsche Renaissance,' in Dohme's 'Barock- und Rococo-Architektur,' in Uhde's 'Baudenkmaeler in Grossbritannien,' in Gotch's 'Architecture of the Renaissance in England,' in Enlart's 'Architecture Gothique en Italie,' or in Gonse's 'Art Gothique.' Architecture that exists and that needs not, as Greek temples do, to be recreated from measurement and calculation, requires the photograph, and not the slow and disguising hand of the draughtsman, overweighted as he must be by the general mass of a great cathedral. Why should the mind of the artist who draws be thrust in between the work of the artist who builds and the student? Moreover, the greater number of these large pictures are of the most unsuccessful character in the combination of draw-

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ing and reproduction. Some of them are phantoms of buildings, in which neither are general masses well shown nor details at all made evident. It is with regret that we are compelled to make the same remark concerning the greater number of the illustrations in Mr. Statham's 'Architecture for General Readers'; they are disfiguring to his pages and often really hard to understand. And yet Mr. Statham is an artist of real force, as two of his drawings found in the smaller book very sufficiently show.

The second book on our list is by the same Mr. Statham who appears as editor and part author of the 'English Cathedrals.' It is altogether a book for the general public, being a very well imagined handbook of the simpler and more obvious principles of architecture, and of its practice among the chief races of builders, except that the people of India are rather too hastily barred out (pp 202 and 289). The account of theory and practice is arranged in two forms, first, in chapters on general principles, on simple building with pillars and walls supporting beams, on building with arches, and on ornament of different kinds; and, second, in an historical sketch, which occupies the last third of the volume. In the first chapter, architectural working-drawings are explained, though not, perhaps, with complete success. It is very important to add some elucidation of the *section*, and the full significance of a section taken on a line A B or C D of the plan is left uncertain; moreover, the perspective sections 23 and 24 are not working-drawings at all, and that should be made clear. In questions of design Mr. Statham is exceedingly naturalistic, an unhesitating champion of common sense and logic as opposed to mere tradition. We have nothing but approval for such an interpretation of architectural art as that to be found on pp. 20, 21, 28, and 29, and generally throughout these chapters. The analysis of styles is commonly adequate. Differences of opinion apart, it is hard to see how the essential peculiarities of each of the great styles could be better explained in the space allotted to it. The chapter on "Architecture in relation to Cities and Landscape," too, deals with a subject that is generally neglected. The brief hints given, pp. 174 to 180, on the use in cities of vistas, openings to distant views, foliage, placing of monuments, and the like, are excellent.

We have spoken of differences of opinion, and the many places in the book where another writer would interpret differently and criticise from another point of view need not be specified. In writing so briefly as Mr. Statham has done, only general conclusions can be stated. One point, however, should be made: the unfortunate use (so common in English) of the word Renaissance to cover, in architecture, all the Italian work from A. D. 1425 on, and all the work in the North which agrees with Italian work in being related closely to classical models, leads to an erroneous fashion of looking at the work of the fifteenth and that of the eighteenth centuries as in the main one and indivisible. The French way of limiting the use of the word to the fifteenth century for Italy and to the reigns of Louis XII., Francis I., and perhaps Henry II. for France, allows of and leads to a more accurate way of reasoning. The Italians, too, discriminate, though less carefully, between the Risorgimento, the Classicismo, and the Decadenza; or, following another line, between the Quatrocento and the Cinquecento. On p. 321 of the book before us we are told that the most notable single buildings of the Renaissance are St. Paul's at London, St. Peter's at Rome, the Palace of Versailles, and the Escurial; no one of which is a Renaissance building according to the French or the Italian nomenclature. This in itself is perhaps of small importance—how the limits of the Renaissance are to be marked out is matter of opinion; but the resulting or coincident inaccuracy of historical view is important. In pages 318-321 is contained the brief notice which Mr. Statham allows to the classical revival, but there is in them no hint that any changes took place, any development and decay, during the three and a half centuries following 1425. It is clear, of course, that the author does not wish to give much space or much attention to the revived classic styles, but still it is unnecessarily misleading to leave the reader ignorant of the vast difference in purpose and aim of, say, Bramante or Fra Giocondo, Pierre Lescot or Pedro de Ibarra, and Sir Christopher Wren or Jules Hardouin Mansart. These men represent not one style but three styles, and there are as many more styles which those four centuries brought into being. We cannot afford to believe that they are all "Renaissance" together.

A notice which is meant to be favorable and even laudatory must not end with fault-finding. Let it be repeated that the styles which the author undertakes to analyze and explain are well understood, and that architectural ornament as well as construction and the resulting forms is better set forth and more clearly brought to the comprehension of beginners than in any popular work we have met with in any language.

Four Years of Novel Reading: An Account of an Experiment in Popularizing the Study of Fiction. Edited, with an Introduction, by Richard G. Moulton, M.A., Ph.D., Professor of Literature in English in the University of Chicago. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

THE experiment of eliminating the reading of fiction from our list of amusements and adding it to that of serious occupations has filled "The Backworth Classical Novel-reading Union" with a pride that naturally expresses itself in a printed book. Hitherto the whole of America may be said to have dwelt in ignorance of Backworth, and an Introduction which shows it in the act of despoiling us of a joy is perhaps not the happiest conceivable. The medium of public advertisement of Backworth's effort towards self-culture is Prof. Moulton of Chicago, until recently an eminent University Extension lecturer in England. He feels strongly about the educational value of fiction, and boldly advises young persons of limited leisure for reading to go straight to the great imaginative writers, even if presumably veracious historians and biographers be utterly neglected. He says the study of fiction must be set about because it "is in its highest form the study of life," and he believes that careful training in youth "will determine whether fiction shall be a dissipation or a mental and moral food." An abiding faith in the contrariness of human nature leads us to forecast results from such a system not anticipated by Prof. Moulton, such as the spectacle of youth trained on Scott and Dumas either taking to Freeman's 'Outlines' for recreation in maturity, or misspending old age in devotion to shilling shockers.

The value in life of a love for good literature contracted in youth admits no argument, but whether that can be forced by a deliberate training which necessarily modifies pleasure, is by no means so certain. Prof. Moulton recognizes the difficulty of persuading the multitude to approach fiction in his own grave if not prayerful spirit, and the object of this publication is to show how that difficulty is in the way of being overcome in Backworth. The Secretary of the Union describes its inauguration and methods, adds a list of novels read and of points discussed during four years, and then follow a few essays as concrete examples of culture. The Secretary's report is charmingly naïf and sincere. Recognizing a possible vagueness in the public mind as to the whereabouts of Backworth, he begins with an exact geographical statement, and then, with admirable local enthusiasm, indicates the superiority of his own village to other villages similarly abandoned to the coal-mining industry. His picture of the awakening of Backworth to the "great educational value of literature" accomplished by a course of U. E. lectures in 1890, prompts reflection on the slow emergence of England from the dark ages, and prepares us to fancy the simple Backworthians forming a society for the study of classical fiction "with an appreciation closely allied to enthusiasm." They make a strong appeal to imaginative sympathy, even the backsliders, those who insisted on having two months in which to read their novel, and those "who refused to do any work until they had read the book," no matter how much time was required for that performance. We are glad to learn that these honest, ingenuous souls were not turned out of the Union, and that compromises were effected whereby they were enabled conscientiously "to do work" on the sound basis of knowledge.

It does not surprise us to hear that the methods of a literary society with members of that mettle have already been adopted "at such places as London and Exeter." We cannot help thinking that they would have done just as well without the "suggestion by experts" of subjects for discussion, which suggestions Professor Moulton says are of the first importance. What largely distinguishes our classical fiction from the rest is the clearness of its message, the saliency of its points; and the people who take the trouble to study it had best be left to grasp and interpret for themselves. The suggestions given from literary experts (hateful phrase!) are not uniformly creditable to their expertness, and we hope that the next publication of the society will include essays from untrammelled Backworthians only. Thus may be avoided the fatuity of discourse on why Dickens is more famous than Reade; the futility of comparison between great but totally different writers, and, perhaps, the shock of such startling information as that Reade shows "the male side of the quality whose female counterpart produces *Keynotes*, *The Heavenly Twins*, and *Trilby*"!

Thinking, Feeling, Doing. By E. W. Scripture, Ph.D. (Leipzig), Director of the Psychological Laboratory in Yale University. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent, The Chautauqua-Century Press. 1895. 12mo, pp. xii, 304.

THIS book is an offering—a very spicy one—on the altar of that bellicose faction in psychology whose shibboleth is Wundt. The author mentions him, in a quiet way, with the best faith in the world, as the greatest of psychologists. Everything that is of value in modern material civilization (in which the author includes our "tall buildings"!) is due, he says, to "experiment." It is owing to the "late introduction of experiment" into the mental sciences that they are in a "mediæval condition"—

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"two hundred years behind the physical sciences"; that the "old" psychology consists of "volumes of vague speculation and flimsy guess-work," an "arm-chair science" "which anybody could teach"; that ethics is but "a conglomeration of maxims," and "philology nothing more than a history of word-changes without an attempt to explain the causes."

"The difference between the old and the new [psychology] is not one of material: the subject is the same for both, namely, the facts of mind. The difference lies in the carefulness with which the information in regard to these phenomena is obtained. Instead of careless observation and guess-work, the utmost care and self sacrificing labor are expended in the laboratory in order to obtain single facts. This method of careful scientific work is unintelligible to men of the old school" (pp. 282-3).

"Hypnotic exhibitions," "thought-transference follies," and "the so-called psychical-research experiments" are "amusements," says our author, "as unrelated to scientific experiments as clairvoyant healing or faith-cure to the science of medicine" (p. 26). And in the margin, as the paragraph summary, he has written, "Quack experiments." Every little counts!

There are a good many pages in the book composed in this tone, sauced with a touch of swagger. It is a relief to turn from them to the chapters of exposition—the "old" psychologist in especial will find it so; there is much in them to console him. They give the "results" up to date of the "new" psychology, and tell briefly how those results were reached. Even admitting them to be "results" properly so called (and many of them are still in dispute—a fact which the author omits to mention), they hardly justify Dr. Scripture's flourish of trumpets; they hardly supply that "lack of information on the most vital questions" of which, he declares, we are "dying." They consist largely in the trivialities of reaction time, and in the verification, with an infinite waste of pedantry, of conclusions that the "old" psychology had reached and proved time out of mind. One doesn't need a laboratory and a lot of apparatus and experiment to prove that small objects are more likely to escape notice than big ones—a needle than a haystack (p. 93), or that "the degree of attention paid to an object depends on the intensity of the feeling aroused" (p. 96). And as for "vague speculation and flimsy guess-work," see Dr. Scripture's remarks on the connection between spruceness on a man-o'-war and duty and discipline:

"Cleanliness is not the only reason why a man-of-war is kept in a high degree of polish. The furnishings could be just as clean if painted with black asphalt; but the effect on the officers and men would be quite different. *It is impossible* to get full attention to duty and discipline in a dingy vessel."

It gives one a certain sense of security to go back to one's James or Mill.

Vita del Barone Bettino Ricasoli. By Aurelio Gotti. Florence: Le Monnier.

THIS book is a great disappointment, and the fault lies not with the subject, but with the author. A biographer who succeeds in making a tedious book about Ricasoli has mistaken his calling, for Ricasoli was not only one of the most striking personalities of his time, but also a leading actor in Italy's regeneration. Had he never carried Tuscany through the crisis of 1859, or been Prime Minister of Italy after the calamity of Cavour's death in 1861, and again during the perplexities of 1866, he would still be a figure worthy of being painted by a master's hand.

His present biographer, Signor Gotti, is favorably known as the author of a Life of Michelangelo, published about twenty years ago, and as the editor, with Tabarrini, of the ten volume edition of Ricasoli's correspondence. He cannot plead inexperience, therefore, nor lack of information; the trouble seems to be, on the contrary, that he is simply swamped by his material. He is at the further disadvantage of being unable to forget that he is writing the "official" biography of the Tuscan statesman, so that he moves with hardly more freedom than do the writers of campaign biographies of Presidential candidates. Not that he falsifies—he states Ricasoli's limitations fairly enough; but he has no sense of proportion. He gives thrice as much space, for instance, to Ricasoli's instructions to one of his farmers about planting a certain field as to the cause of Ricasoli's resignation of the premiership in 1862. Signor Gotti assumes throughout that the reader is familiar not only with Italian history, even in its most intricate political minutiæ from 1840 to 1880, but also with the ten volumes of Ricasoli's letters and documents. So he quotes without supplying dates or explaining references; and he fails to produce upon us the impression of sequence or advance. His chapters are like the radial wings of a penitentiary, which have no outlet at the further end, so that you have always to return to the central point if you would traverse a new corridor.

In so many of his methods is Signor Gotti old-fashioned that we are amused to observe how closely, in others, he resembles the most approved exponents of one modern school of historical students. He, too, like the most zealous of the young Stubbses whose monographs drop periodically with dull thuds from the historical seminars of many of our colleges, has learned the virtue of the art of dumping. Would that he had imitated some of the good qualities of those same young Stubbses. He has issued a book of nearly 400 closely printed octavo pages without an index, without titles to chapters, without headlines, so that the unfortunate student who has to refer to it for facts must be prepared to waste much time. Such an occupation will have the tedium and chill, without the excitement, of climbing a glacier from top to bottom in search of a lost object.

Meanwhile, Bettino Ricasoli awaits a fitting biographer. His character was as individual as that of the elder Cato, with additional traits which make it more interesting; for in him were strangely mixed the feudal lord and the modern philanthropist, the aristocrat and the democrat, the soberest reasoner and the man of faith. If ever any man stood firmly on his feet and walked straight through life along the narrow path his unswerving conscience marked out for him, the late Baron Ricasoli was he.

New Studies in Literature. By Edward Dowden. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

IT is always a pleasure to receive a new volume from the pen of Mr. Dowden. His wide and exact knowledge of modern literature is under the control of a true taste, and he has at his command a facile and often eloquent style, to which one cheerfully pardons some lack of compression. He is a good interpreter, and the amiable temper of his criticism is always engaging. The contents of the volume before us consist of *Fortnightly Review* papers ranging from Goethe to Fabre d'Eglantine, and from Dr. Donne to Mr. Robert Bridges. They are mostly expository, and in some instances furnish excellent introductions to the study of the authors discussed. The last paper is the only one that was not worth reprinting. It is "an introductory lecture to [Mr. Dowden's] college class," to whom it was no doubt both agreeable and instructive; but it has little to say to the world at large. Perhaps, however, the British public have not been so pestered as the American public with educational journals and summer conventions. The papers on Goethe, five in number, are fragments of a more extended study not yet completed. Though this study may not contain much that is new to persevering sifters of the huge heaps of material which idolatrous industry is constantly piling up in Germany, English readers will look for its completion with expectancy. It is interesting to see that the author has arrived at a view of 'Wilhelm Meister' which, as he himself points out, coincides with Hettner's, though it was not derived from the German critic. "One can hardly hope to say a new word in studying a foreign literature," says Mr. Dowden modestly; "it is perhaps enough if one says a true word."

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